



April 2006

## Shaw Air Force Base

### Archaeological Resources Overview of Shaw Air Force Base and Pointsett Electronic Combat Range

Sumter County, South Carolina

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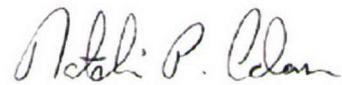
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# ABSTRACT

As a result of over 20 years of archaeology, numerous sites have been identified and investigated on Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR. This report summarizes what has been learned from the work that has been done thus far on some of the more significant sites and provides discussion about the research potential of those sites and direction for future research at Shaw and Poinsett.

Most interesting from a prehistoric perspective was the area around Big Bay, which contains numerous multi-component sites with a rich archaeological record that is able to provide detail on household structure, intra-site patterning, ceramic technology, lithic raw material preferences, and prehistoric diet. The significant historic sites can provide information on rural antebellum and Postbellum plantation life, nineteenth century towns, and the lives of African-American farm owners and ministers. Historical documents regarding Shaw and Poinsett abound, particularly for the time of acquisition. These documents, along with census data, family papers, and other resources can provide a detailed look at the communities that existed throughout its history.

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# I. INTRODUCTION

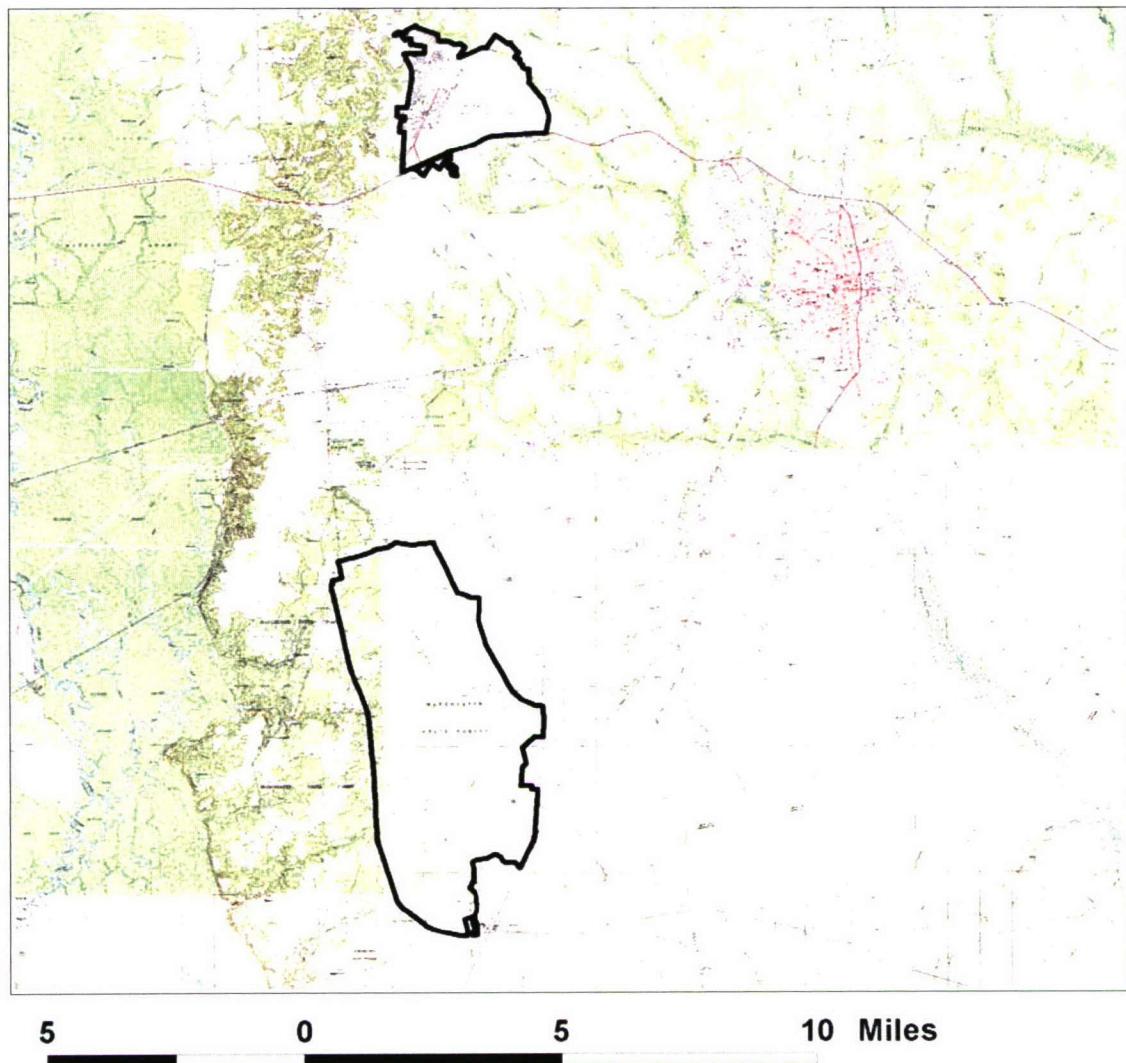
Over the past twenty some years, archaeological surveys, testings, and excavations have been undertaken at Shaw Air Force Base (AFB) and Poinsett Electronic Combat Range (ECR) in order to investigate important archaeological sites. As a result of this work, nine sites have been identified and assessed on Shaw AFB as have 127 sites on Poinsett ECR (see Appendix A). While most of these sites have been damaged by years of agriculture, logging, and construction, some of them have exhibited a great deal of physical integrity and/or have historical significance. Through the examination of these more important sites we have begun to understand a great deal more about the prehistoric inhabitants of this area. While prehistoric investigations performed thus far have revealed some interesting information, the work has just scratched the surface. No large-scale excavation has occurred at any of the historic sites, but Phase II testing along with documentary research has provided some interesting preliminary information about the nineteenth and early twentieth century occupants. Despite over 20 years of archaeology and historical research at Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR, there is a great deal more to be learned.

Both Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR are situated in historically sensitive areas. Shaw AFB is located just north of US Hwy 76, which is an old road known as "Fish Road" running from Garner's Ferry on the Wateree River to the town of Sumterville. Poinsett ECR is located just south of the old town of Manchester and along the old Catawba Trading Path, later known as the King's Highway. This road roughly follows modern-day SC Hwy. 261.

Both Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR were attractive to prehistoric populations due to the presence of well drained soils adjacent to drainages and wetlands, but Poinsett ECR was particularly so due to the presence of two very large Carolina Bays known as Big Bay North and Big Bay South. Prehistoric people were particularly fond of occupying the high, dry sand ridges situated along the northern and western rim. Evidence of occupation around these bays ranges from early Paleoindians (12000 B.P. – before present) up through Mississippian inhabitants (450 B.P.).

This document reviews what has been learned from the archaeology at Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR and highlights areas where additional research is needed. Figure 1 shows the location of Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR in relation to the town of Sumter and the Wateree River. Figures 2 and 3 illustrate the two facilities close up showing roads and bodies of water.

Figure 1  
Shaw AFB and Pointsett ECR on the Sumter 1:100,000 Scale Topographic Map

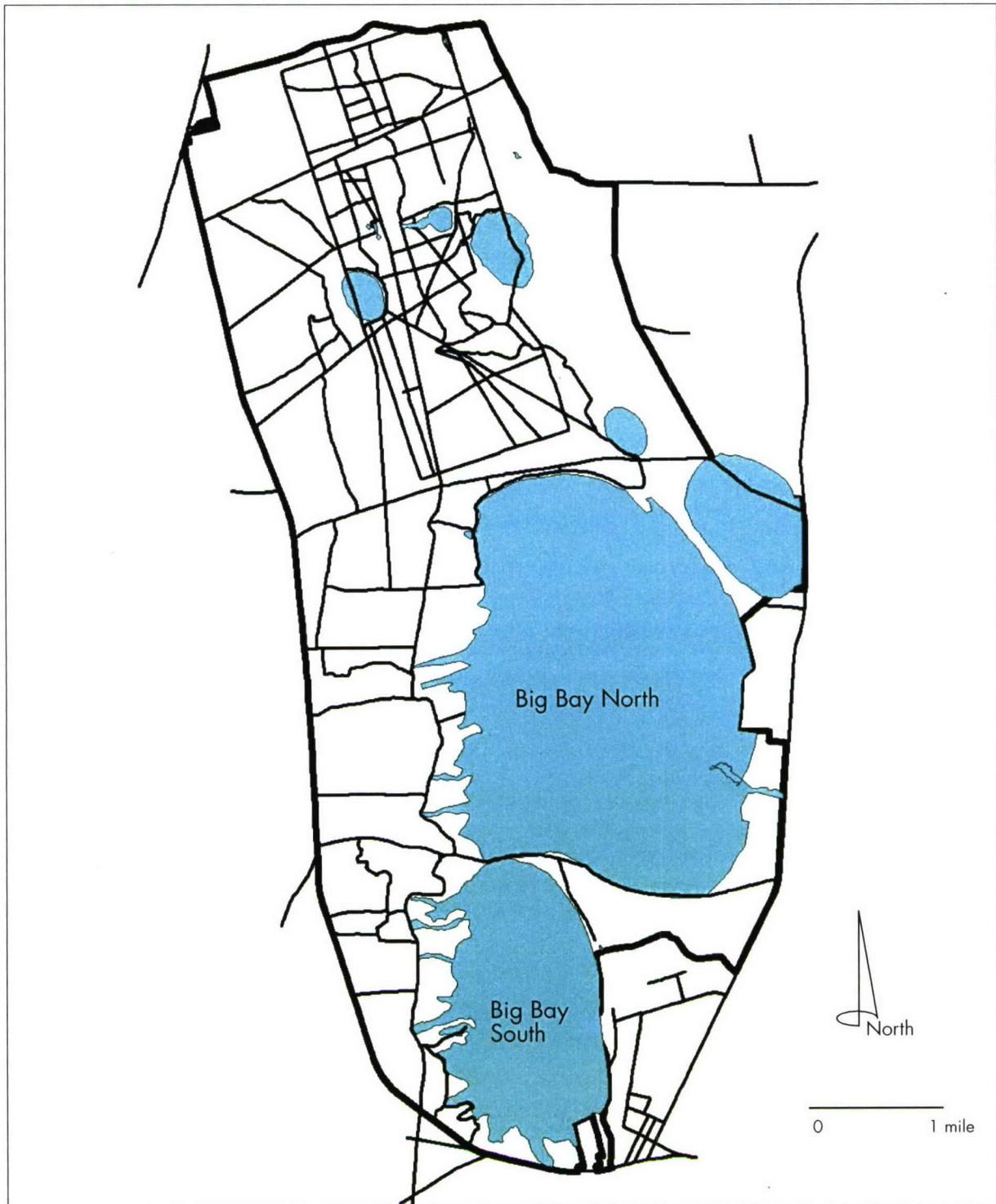


Source: USGS topographic map, Sumter S C>

Figure 2  
Close up view of Shaw AFB showing roads and bodies of water



Figure 3  
Close up view of Poinsett ECR showing roads and bodies of water



## II. ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING

Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR are located within a region bounded by two river systems, the Lynches River to the east, and the Santee and its major tributaries, the Congaree and the Wateree, to the west. Sumter County itself is bounded on the east by the Lynches, and on the west by the Wateree. Kershaw County, located north-northwest of Sumter, is comprised of land on both sides of the Wateree. The city of Camden, seat of Kershaw County, is situated on the Wateree's east bank. Richland County, west of Sumter, is bounded by the Wateree and the Congaree, and contains the state capital, Columbia. Northeast of Sumter is Lee County, along the Lynches River. To the south and southeast is a row of counties stretching along the east bank of the Santee all the way to the coast: Clarendon, Williamsburg, and Georgetown. Roughly 70 miles south of Sumter County is Charleston, the historical focal point of South Carolina.

Running through the middle of Sumter, Clarendon, Williamsburg, and Georgetown counties is the Black River and its tributaries, draining an area between the Wateree-Santee and the Lynches. Within Sumter County, the main tributary of the Black is the Pocotaligo River, which flows adjacent to the city of Sumter, county seat and population center of Sumter County. Both Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR are located either on or immediately adjacent to the divide between the Wateree to the west, and the Pocotaligo to the east. Because of their location on the divide, most of the streams in the Shaw and Poinsett areas are relatively small. The one exception is Long Branch, a tributary of the Pocotaligo that forms the northeast boundary of Shaw AFB.

Going back in geologic time, the general area was probably first exposed a few million years ago, between the Miocene and early Pleistocene (Colquhoun 1969), when the earth became cooler and increasing quantities of water were locked up in polar ice packs. As the sea retreated, it left behind a number of relict beaches, sea cliffs, and dune lines. One of these was the Orangeburg Scarp, a Miocene shoreline located immediately above both Shaw and Poinsett; another was the Surry Scarp, a late Pliocene-early Pleistocene shore located below the project area. Between these two scarps is an area now identified as the Middle Coastal Plain, which ranges in elevation from 67-72 m (220-236 ft) near the Orangeburg Scarp to 30-37 m (98-121 ft) in the vicinity of the Surry Scarp. Typical soils in this area are basic Miocene Marine Duplin Formation sands and clays, overlain with alluvial sands and gravels (Pitt 1974).

The Middle Coastal Plain is just a relatively small band within the much larger coastal plain of what is now South Carolina. Extending from the modern coastline to the edge of the piedmont, the coastal plain extends inland to the fall line, which on the Wateree is located in the vicinity of Camden. Even though all of Sumter County falls within the coastal plain, there is still considerable variation in elevation. The city of Sumter on the Pocotaligo has an elevation of 169-ft ASL; the swamps along Wateree River are barely above 100-ft ASL. Between them are the highest elevations in the county, a series of broken sand hills associated with the Orangeburg Scarp. Commonly identified in historic times as the "High Hills of the Santee," these hills can reach elevations greater than 300 ft ASL in the vicinity of Wedgefield and Statesburg (Ramsey and Green 1922:13; Comprehensive Plan 1994:1).

The High Hills of the Santee are remnant sand dunes associated with an ancient shoreline, reworked and reshaped by wind and river erosion (Cooke 1936). Extending in a north-south line east of the Wateree River, these hills form the spine of Sumter County. Broken and relatively rugged in the north, these hills

become more rounded as the elevation drops to the south (Ramsey and Green 1922:13, 26). Shaw AFB is located on the east side of the ridge formed by these hills, with Long Branch flowing into the Pocotaligo River. Poinsett Weapons Range is on the southern crest of these hills: streams on the east side flow into the Pocotaligo while streams on the west side empty into the floodplain of the Wateree River.

In addition to sand hills, the local area is also marked by shallow, swampy depressions that are best defined near the apex of the sand hills. Called bays or "Carolina bays," these depressions often have a distinctive oval shape (Thom 1970). Two large depressions are found in the southern half of Poinsett Weapons Range, and together have been named "Big Bay," even though at least one source has identified the larger of the two as Juniper Bay. Located near the crest of the sand hills, adjacent to the divide between the Wateree and Pocotaligo drainages, these two bays are poorly drained and often inundated. The larger of the two serves as the headwaters for Sammy Swamp, a tributary of the Pocotaligo. Halfway Swamp, a small tributary of the Santee, drains the smaller bay, located at the southern tip of Poinsett. Much smaller bays occur elsewhere at Poinsett.

These bays are found throughout a wide area of both North and South Carolina in both the coastal plain and piedmont. Dated to the late Pleistocene, their origin is still a mystery. Among the more popular theories explaining the bays is the mid-air explosion of comet fragments, entering the earth's atmosphere on a northwest trajectory. Another suggests that bays were formed by littoral processes set up in shallow seas by strong unidirectional winds.

Long after the sea receded, the present climate was established around 8,000 years ago. The climate of the project area, which has been relatively stable for the past several thousand years, is sub-tropical, with mild winters and hot summers. Annual rainfall averages around 45 inches, more than enough to support a thick oak-pine canopy. Within this forest, pines have predominated, at least since historic times (Delcourt and Delcourt 1987; Watts 1971).

Sand hills and adjacent palustrine wetlands characterize both Shaw and Poinsett. The Sandhills are well drained and tend to have a natural covering of pine. The wetlands are a different story. Dominated by shrubs and hardwood trees, these palustrine wetlands generally have a depth of less than two meters (Mathews et al. 1980). The Carolina bays fall into this category. There are, however, other wetland areas adjacent to streams, like Long Branch on the northeast edge of Shaw AFB. Whether blanketed by pine forest or swamp, the general area has relatively low erosion potential. Pines provide good ground cover and do not disturb the soil as much as hardwoods. The bays and streams, all virtually forming headwaters for larger drainages below, rarely move enough water to form an erosional threat.

### III. PREHISTORY AND PREHISTORIC ARCHAEOLOGY

#### PRE-CLOVIS AND PALEOINDIAN PERIODS

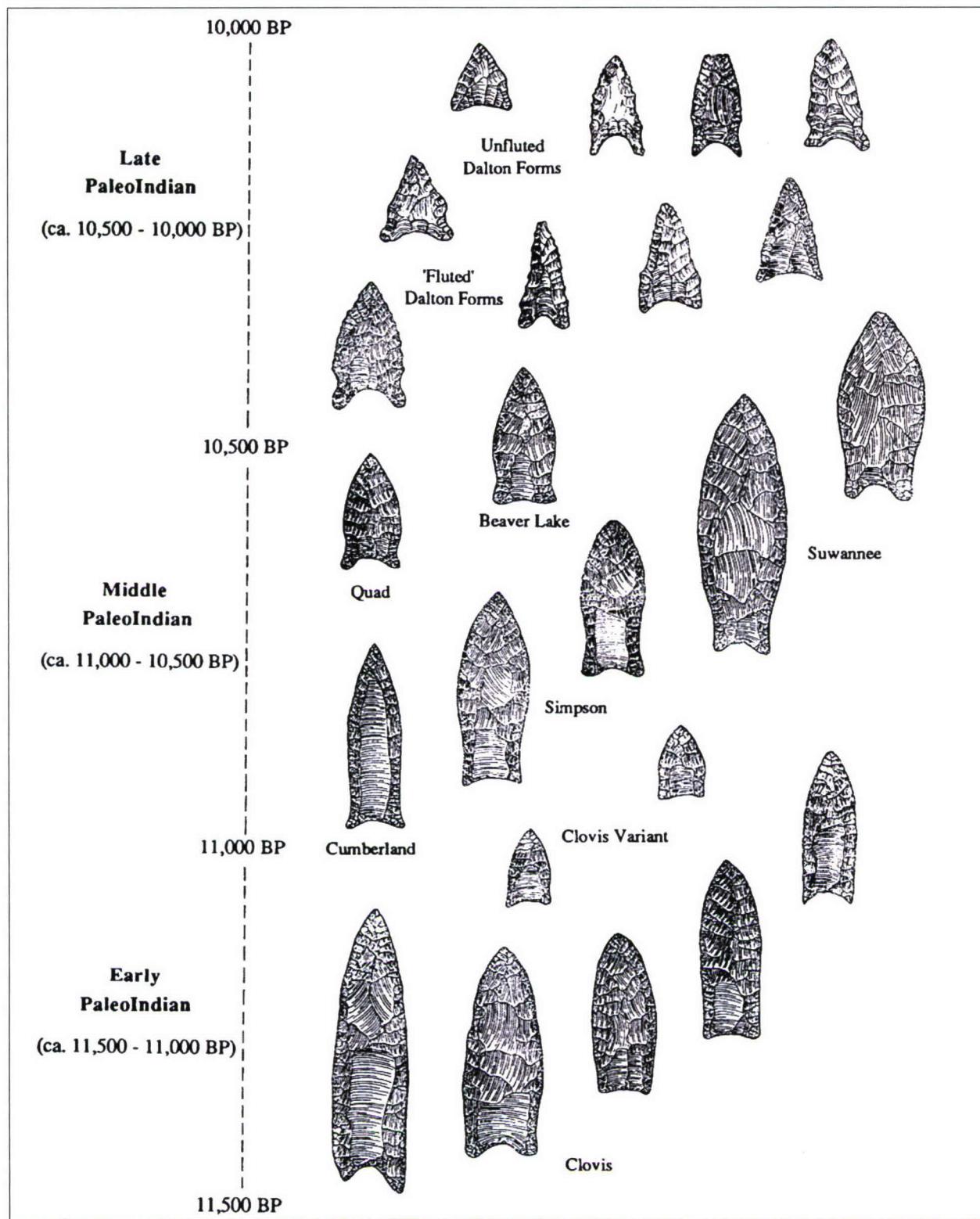
The Paleoindian period is commonly dated between 12,000 and 10,000 years before present (B.P.) throughout North America (Haynes et al. 1984). Billy Oliver's (1981) proposed revision of the North Carolina piedmont sequence extends the temporal range of the Paleoindian period back to 14,000 B.P. A beginning date of 14,000 B.P. seems too early for assemblages commonly identified as Paleoindian, as the earliest accepted radiocarbon ages for fluted points extend only to about 12,500 B.P. (Haynes et al. 1984).

Stylistic variation in Paleoindian projectile point morphology in the Southeastern United States is most commonly viewed as representative of a sequence of technological change (see Anderson 1990). Proposed sequences on the South Atlantic Slope have been developed for the Mid-Atlantic states (Gardner and Verry 1979), Georgia (Anderson et al. 1990), and South Carolina (Goodyear et al. 1989). A tripartite division of the point styles into "Early," "Middle," and "Late" groupings is evident in each of these sequences. The archetypical fluted Clovis Lanceolate type consistently represents the early subperiod, while the middle and late periods reflect the beginnings of increasing regional variation. In the Mid-Atlantic area the middle subperiod is marked by the appearance of the small, Bull Brook-like style (Gardner 1974; Gardner and Verry 1979). The later subperiod in this area is represented by the nonfluted Hardaway-Dalton and Dalton types. Goodyear et al. (1989) and Anderson (1990) refer to this Bull Brook-like style as a Clovis variant and regard it as a transitional type that may have been partly contemporaneous with the Clovis style. The middle subperiod in the more southerly sequences is represented by fishtailed fluted and nonfluted types identified as Cumberland, Simpson, Suwannee, and Quad points, while the later subperiod is hypothesized to consist of Dalton variants (see Figure 4).

The Hardaway-Dalton and Hardaway Blade styles, first identified at the Hardaway site in North Carolina (Coe 1964), may very well represent morphological variation related to both the middle and late periods. Certainly the two Hardaway-Dalton projectile points found during the Haw River excavations in North Carolina (Claggett and Cable 1982:327, Plate 3) appear to exhibit a fish-tailed outline and excurvate blade more typical of the Quad and Suwannee styles than they do the typical Dalton form as described by Goodyear (1974). Examples of forms similar to both archetypal Dalton Points and to these earlier fishtailed variants can be seen in the plates illustrating the Hardaway Blade and Hardaway-Dalton types at the Hardaway site as well (Coe 1964:64-66). In view of the sequences developed in surrounding states it is quite probable that a Quad- or Suwannee-like horizon does exist in North Carolina and, by extension, the northern half of South Carolina. It is important to note, however, that these sequences are hypothetical and have not been verified through independent dating.

The possible existence of a pre-Paleoindian (or pre-Clovis) horizon in the New World has been a hotly debated topic for some time. Literature reviews of the archeological evidence in both hemispheres provide

Figure 4  
Paleoindian and Early Archaic Chronology and Diagonostic  
Projectile Points in the Southeast



little support for the validity of such a horizon (Dincauze 1984; Lynch 1990; Meltzer 1989). The uneasy consensus among North American archeologists is that the initial human colonization of the continent started not long before 13,000 B.P., and was accomplished by Paleoindian populations manufacturing fluted projectile points of the Clovis style (see Anderson 1990; Haynes 1980, 1987; Haynes et al. 1984; Kelly and Todd 1988).

One very sticky problem in accepting this particular model, however, is presented by the Meadowcroft Rockshelter excavations (Adovasio et al. 1977, 1981, 1985). Here, an Upper Paleolithic assemblage seemingly without fluted projectile points, certainly an excellent candidate for a pre-Clovis assemblage on technological grounds, has been repeatedly dated to at least 14,000 to 14,500 B.P. Criticisms of these findings have primarily been directed toward possible particulate contamination of the dated carbon samples (Dincauze 1981; Haynes 1980; Mead 1980, Tankersley et al. 1987), but deposit mixing has also been raised as an issue (Kelly 1987). The original excavators (Adovasio et al. 1990) have met these criticisms with excruciatingly detailed rebuttal and reanalysis, and the persuasive force of these further analyses cannot be easily dismissed. There is a very real possibility that Paleoindian groups in North America developed in place out of an Upper Paleolithic population like that hypothesized to have inhabited Meadowcroft Rockshelter. On the other hand, it is certainly possible that these remains represent an episode of failed migration with little or no relation to the later Clovis "radiation" (Meltzer 1989). Meltzer (1989:484) succinctly summarizes the current state of the problem: "there is no compelling evidence to accept a pre-Clovis occupation, there is no compelling reason to deny one either."

Albert Goodyear of the University of South Carolina has reported a pre-Clovis assemblage at the Topper site located along the middle Savannah River Valley near Aiken, South Carolina. Radiocarbon dates of more than 50,000 BP were obtained from a possible hearth area. If the dates are correct and are associated with human occupation, then the site provides evidence which destroys the previously held belief that humans first inhabited this portion of North America around 13,000 BP. Excavations below a Clovis layer, through a red paleosol zone exposed white Pleistocene alluvial sands, which is believed to be the normal pre-Clovis zone for Topper. This was excavated down to the Pleistocene terrace. Within this layer small flakes, some with bend break fractures, were recovered. These are believed to be pre-Clovis chert processing piles. In one area of the site six chert artifacts (small blades, endscraper, and sidescrapers) were found around a large boulder which had been used as an anvil.

Of considerable interest was the recovery of charcoal from the pre-Clovis layer. There was an area of abundant charcoal in a shallow depression, from which a chert flake was recovered and it is believed that this represents a hearth. Two radiocarbon samples were submitted, which resulted in dates of 50,300 RC yr. BP and 51,700 RC yr. BP (Goodyear 2005). This work could have great implications for understanding the origin and migration of the human species.

The time range of the Paleoindian period corresponds closely with the final stages of the late Pleistocene megafauna extinctions, and there is some evidence to suggest that over-exploitation by Paleoindian groups contributed to the demise of these large mammals. Paleoindian assemblages associated with late Pleistocene large game (i.e., mammoth, mastodon, ground sloth and Pleistocene bison) have been well documented in the western United States, but the same is not true for the Eastern Woodlands (Goodyear et al. 1979: 91). Only "modern" species such as caribou have been recovered at Holcombe Beach in Michigan (Cleland 1965) and Dutchess Cave Quarry in New York (Funk 1977). Moreover, at Meadowcroft Rockshelter in Pennsylvania, only white-tailed deer and wapiti have been positively identified (Adovasio et al. 1977).

Many researchers in the Southeast, noting the tendency for Paleoindian sites to be located in prime large game habitats (i.e., major river systems), nevertheless argue that eastern Paleoindians may have based their subsistence economies on the exploitation of extinct big game (Gardner 1974; Goodyear et al. 1979; Michie 1977; Williams and Stoltman 1965). Certainly there are documented cases in the eastern United States of the coexistence of extinct megafauna and humans (Cockrell and Murphy 1978; Fisher 1981; MacDonald 1983), and there are even several instances that appear to document actual exploitation in Florida. These instances include a butchered giant tortoise carcass recovered from Little Salt Spring (Clausen et al. 1979), a chert projectile point fragment embedded in a *Bison antiquus* skull in the Wacissa River Valley (Webb et al. 1984), and a worked proboscidean bone from sink holes in northern Florida (Dunbar et al. 1989).

Regardless of the particular mix of late Pleistocene game animals (i.e., extinct larger game such as mammoth and bison versus smaller game such as deer and elk), however, the characterization of the Paleoindian economy of the Eastern Woodlands as one based on big game hunting seems to accurately distinguish it from the later, hunter-gatherers of the Archaic period (Cleland 1966; Willey 1966). Recent examinations of radiocarbon dates associated with Pleistocene big game strongly suggest that the window of opportunity for hunting by Paleoindian groups was very narrow and that it is possible that only the earliest groups (i.e., Clovis) were actually able to include large game as a major portion of their economy (Haynes et al. 1984; Meltzer and Mead 1985). The importance of meat in the Paleoindian diet, however, can sometimes be overemphasized. Plant food remains from Meadowcroft Rockshelter, Shawnee-Minisink (McNett et al. 1977) and Dutchess Cave Quarry indicate that other resources such as fish, birds, hawthorn, and nuts were also incorporated into Paleoindian diets.

The consensus view of Paleoindian occupation in the Southeastern United States is that it was very mobile, had a low population density, and focused on specific types of game animals (Anderson and Joseph 1988; Gardner 1979; Goodyear 1979; Goodyear et al. 1989; Meltzer 1988; B. Smith 1986; Steponaitis 1986; Williams and Stoltman 1965). Kelly and Todd (1988) have argued that Paleoindians had to confront the special problems associated with the rapid colonization of unoccupied land. This perspective is based on the assumption that there was no substantial pre-Clovis settlement in the New World.

Because of the rapid environmental and biological changes occurring at the Pleistocene-Holocene boundary (i.e., megafauna extinction, gradual climatic warming, and changing plant species), Kelly and Todd (1988) argue that Paleoindian groups were faced with the dilemma of taking advantage of quickly changing and unpredictable animal resources. As a result they suggest that extractive behaviors and technology would have been focused on knowledge of general animal behavior rather than on an in depth understanding of the relationships between plants and animals and the landforms of a particular region. This type of adaptation has been referred to as a "high technology forager" system (Spiess 1984; Todd 1983: 231-233). The highly curated nature of the Paleoindian lithic technology is seen not so much as a direct result of heavy logistical orientation, but as a response to the unpredictable distribution of animal resources and the need to make long distance moves into unknown and previously uninhabited areas.

These arguments have important implications for the "Effective Temperature/ Technological Organization" model (Cable 1982a) as it has come to be known (see Anderson and Hanson 1988; Anderson and Schuldenrein 1983, 1985), because "tool curation" ratings are precisely the kind of measurements that have been generated to identify mobility patterns. Although the Early Archaic tool kit can be demonstrated to exhibit a "lower" emphasis on curation, it is still closely aligned with that of the Paleoindian, and it can be suggested that these groups may also have been characterized by a "high technology forager" system

modified by decreased territorial range due to population infilling and an increased awareness of the special environmental qualities of a region. Given the increased predictability of resources and the probable continued emphasis on animal resources, it is reasonable to suggest that late Paleoindian and the initial Early Archaic systems were more logically organized than early Paleoindian systems. These are questions that can only be resolved through settlement pattern analysis.

In South Carolina, most Paleoindian points have been found along river terraces near the intersection of larger streams and rivers with smaller streams and creeks, and the overall distribution of these points reflects a preference for the Coastal Plain (Michie 1977). While no Paleoindian points have been recorded for Shaw AFB or Poinsett ECR, numerous specimens have been documented from the nearby Black River drainage in eastern Sumter County and from southern Kershaw County between Boykin and Camden (Charles and Michie 1992).

Although Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR do not possess the environmental settings that are thought to have the highest potential of containing early Paleoindian components (i.e., rivers and large creeks), such sites may exist. A possible Paleoindian component was found at 38SU145 (Cable and Cantley 1998). The environmental setting of 38SU145 is the headwaters of the Blackwater Pond drainage near Big Bay. The site is located near the northwest rim of the bay, which is approximately 400 meters away. An Early Archaic Hardaway-Dalton component was found in excavations between 50 and 70 cmbs. Below this level to 100 cmbs was a non-diagnostic lithic component that could represent a late Paleoindian occupation. It was characterized by low artifact density, a high tool-to-debitage ratio, and relatively dispersed tool distribution (Figure 5). Debitage at this site consisted of almost exclusively small, late stage reduction residue and resharpening spalls. This indicates that tool maintenance was occurring rather than tool manufacture.

Cantley and Cable (2002a: 250) state that these characteristics conform to recently abandoned Walukaritji camps excavated by Hayden in Australia (1979) (Figure 6). These camps were defined as special purpose and were interpreted with the aid of the actual occupants. Interviews concluded that the location excavated represented unmarried men's sleeping areas. However, they also reflected subsistence activities as they prepared their own food they had hunted. They were also manufacturing new spear shafts and this resulted in the discard of numerous stone adzes and chopping implements. Most of the tools were expediently made from locally obtained stone. These conditions would favor rapid discard rates. This high tool-to-debitage ratio and low tool diversity are common characteristics of Paleoindian and Early Archaic sites in the Eastern Woodlands and it has been suggested that many of these sites represent special purpose camps for the targeting and bulk processing of hooved mammals such as deer (Cable 1996; Cable et al. 1996; Cantley and Cable 2002a).

Cable and Cantley (1998: 330-331) believe that the archaeological manifestations of Paleoindian occupation are consistent with focused, specialized uses of the land for a very short period of time. Seven of the 12 tools associated with the possible Paleo-Indian and Hardaway-Dalton occupation at 38SU145 were end scrapers, while only two end scrapers were recovered from later contexts. This suggests low tool diversity, indicating a specialized use of that land. They believe sites of this time period represent hunting camps of short duration. The end scrapers would have been necessary to process hides in bulk near kill locations. They believe that deer could have been taken in large quantities by setting up ambush locations along known deer trails that lead into and out of the Big Bay thicket. Deer would move in the early morning and evening to forage in the uplands and a few well-placed hunters could have easily taken a number of these animals.

Figure 5  
Possible Paleoindian Floor, Block 3 38SU145

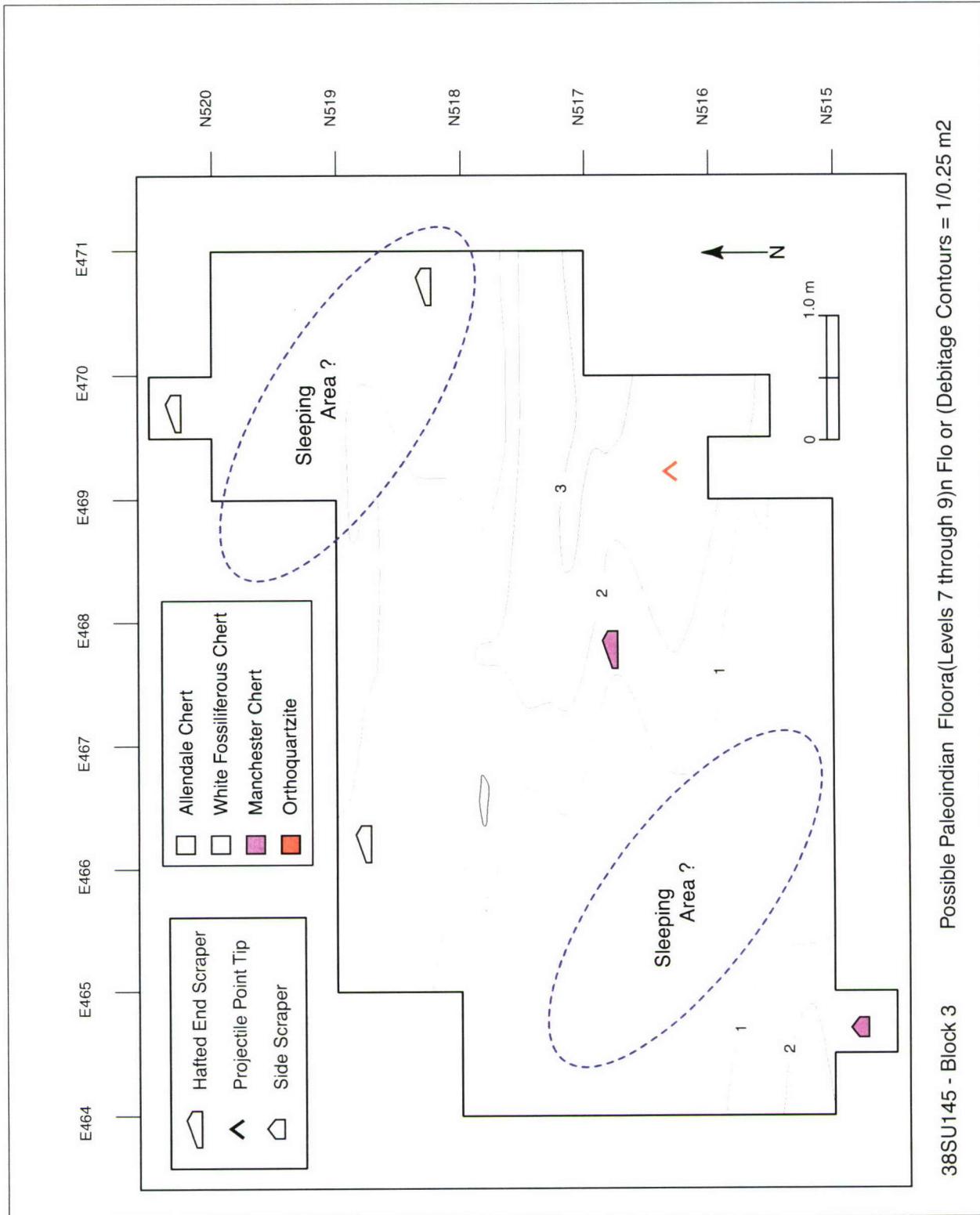
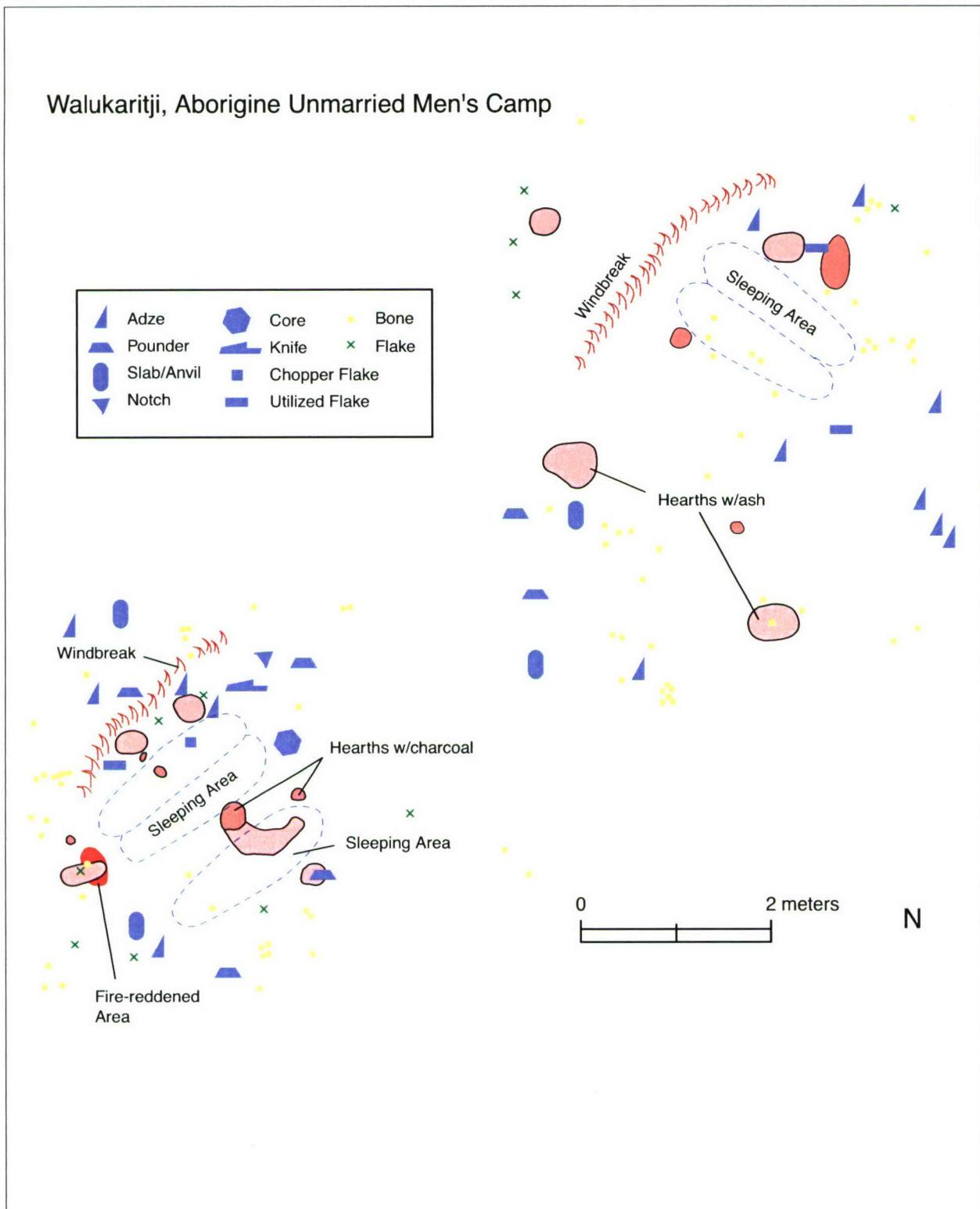


Figure 6  
Plan Map for Walukaritji, an Aborigine Unmarried Men's Camp



A second site with a possible Paleoindian component, 38SU51, was identified by Cliff et al. (1999). This site is situated along the northeastern rim of Big Bay in a similar setting as 38SU145. There were numerous later occupations at this site, but Phase II testing suggests that early remains can be isolated beneath the ceramic levels. Data recovery excavations have yet to be performed at this site.

Although only two potential Paleoindian sites have been found at Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR, the identification of these early sites adjacent to Big Bay indicates that settlement away from large rivers and creeks occurred at some point in time – perhaps during the latter portion of the Paleoindian period. Archaeology adjacent to Big Bay and other large Carolina bays on the base may provide additional evidence for early land use, environmental adaptations, and could flesh out our understanding of tool technology and subsistence.

## THE ARCHAIC PERIOD

The Archaic sequence has been traditionally divided into three periods: the Early Archaic (10,000-8,000 B.P.), the Middle Archaic (8,000-5,000 B.P.), and the Late Archaic (5,000-3,000 B.P.). In general, the Archaic is viewed as a lengthy time of adjustment to changing environments brought about by the Holocene warming trend and a rising sea level. Caldwell's (1958) model of "broad spectrum" hunter-gatherer adaptations continues to define the period. However, the differences between the cultures at either end of the sequence are immense and indicate that major cultural and adaptational changes occurred during the Archaic period that might not fit a gradual model of change.

The results of the S.C. 151 survey (Cable and Cantley 1979) on the Lynches River and the more recent excavations near Jefferson, S.C. in Chesterfield County (Gunn and Wilson 1993) and Conway, S.C. in Horry County (Cable et al. 1996) indicate that the portion of South Carolina above the Santee River contains an Archaic projectile point sequence nearly identical to the one Coe (1964) constructed for the North Carolina Piedmont. Early Archaic forms include, from earliest to latest, the Hardaway Side-Notched and small and large Palmer or Kirk Corner-Notched points. Representatives of the terminal Early Archaic Bifurcate Tradition (Chapman 1975) are also found in small quantities. The Middle Archaic sequence begins with large square-stemmed and widely side-notched points known as Kirk Serrated and Kirk Stemmed, which are followed by the closely aligned Stanly Stemmed. These are followed by the contracting stemmed Morrow Mountain I and II Stemmed types and then the lanceolate Guilford and Brier Creek types. Late Archaic points include the early Savannah River Stemmed and Knife types and the smaller Otarre Stemmed point. Pottery makes its appearance at the very end of the Late Archaic with the fiber-tempered Stallings series and the sand-tempered Thom's Creek series (see Blanton et al. 1986; Cable et al. 1996).

### EARLY ARCHAIC

Early Archaic lithic assemblages in the Southeast are quite similar to those of the Paleoindian period. State-wide, projectile points remain stylistically formalized and show evidence of economizing rejuvenation strategies, hafted end scrapers continue to be well represented and there is an emphasis on the curation and use of high-quality cryptocrystalline raw material such as chert and high grade metavolcanics. Cleland (1976) has suggested that these attributes indicate a continued focus on the hunting and processing of big game animals. In support of this Goodyear et al. (1979: 104) note that plant processing tools such as grinding stones are extremely rare in Early Archaic deposits. Chapman (1977: 95, 116) reports the

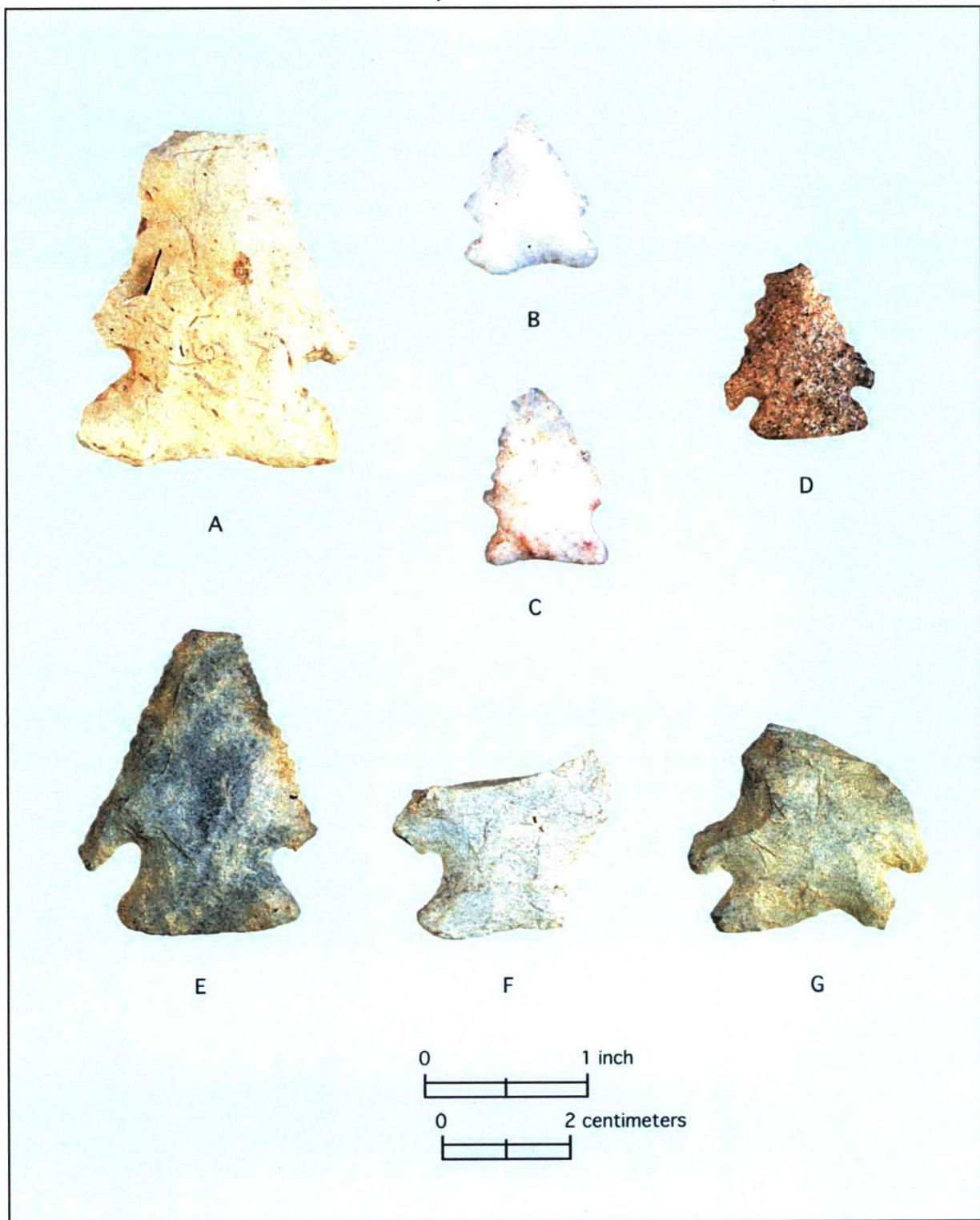
presence of eight grinding slabs in Kirk Corner-Notched deposits at Ice House Bottom in Tennessee, but was unable to demonstrate the reliance on, or even the presence of, "weed seeds" in the flotation samples from these levels. Acorn and hickory nutshells, however, were abundant.

Faunal remains from Early Archaic associations in the Southeast indicate a wide spread emphasis on white-tailed deer, but a variety of smaller game including gray squirrel, raccoon, turkey and box turtle have also been identified (Goodyear et al. 1979: 105). Subsistence data then, suggest that hunting large game (i.e., white-tailed deer, elk, and bison and antelope on the western margin of the eastern woodlands) was indeed a major element of Early Archaic economies as was true for the Paleoindian period, but that there was also significant energy devoted to nut and seed gathering (i.e., oak, hickory, black walnut, hackberry, persimmon, copperleaf, pigweed, goosefoot, maygrass, notweed, purslane, grape, etc.). The trapping of smaller terrestrial game and aquatic resources (i.e., mussels, fish, turtle, ducks, geese, quail, turkey, beaver, squirrel, skunk, bobcat, opossum, porcupine, raccoon, otter, etc.) was also a major feature of the economy. In fact, a review of subsistence data from major Dalton and Early Archaic contexts in the Southeast leads Bruce Smith (1986:10) to observe that Early Archaic subsistence systems were diverse, "providing little support for the existence of a focal economy," and that the available faunal-floral assemblages resemble the "broad spectrum" composition of those of later assemblages in important ways. He further notes that the subsistence resources commonly associated with the Early Archaic period indicate significant exploitation of both upland, closed canopy, climax forests and edge areas such as river valleys where early successional habitats were fostered by unstable geomorphological conditions and possibly prehistoric land use practices.

A number of settlement models have characterized the Fall Line as the hub of territorially expansive settlement systems during the Early Holocene along the Atlantic Slope. Noting the apparently heavy concentration of Paleoindian points in this zone, Goodyear (1983; Goodyear et al. 1989: 44) has speculated that this pattern either evidenced disproportionately high reoccupation at the Fall Line or its use as a zone of base camp habitation of a prolonged seasonal nature. Anderson and Hanson (1988) later elaborated on this general scheme by proposing a seasonal round for Early Archaic systems in which the piedmont was exploited during the summer and early fall, the coastal plain was targeted in the spring, and the Fall Line was inhabited during the fall and winter. Occupation of the Fall Line is characterized by the establishment and/or reoccupation of fall aggregation sites and winter base camps, while the piedmont and coastal plain are hypothesized to have been exploited by dispersed foraging units. It is further proposed that the territories of Early Archaic bands were organized linearly along major drainages and that the South Atlantic Slope contained eight such bands distributed from northern Florida to Pamlico Sound, N. C. The interior coastal plain is believed to have been exploited by small forager residences and specialized logistical extraction camps. Settlement along the coast is poorly understood because the early Holocene coastline is now buried. Evidence documenting the use of shellfish and other coastal resources represents a major gap in Archaic research.

Cable and Cantley (1998: 353-354) speculate that the earliest cultural systems in the Shaw AFB/Poinsett ECR area were organized as high technology foragers, and incorporated both high residential mobility and high logistical mobility. Given the kinds of lithic raw materials used, the territorial range was very extensive, included both the Piedmont and the Coastal Plain, and were oriented along the Wateree-Santee drainage network. They believe the Big Bay ecotone was probably occupied in both warm and cold seasons. Warm season use would have been high technology forager residences of an unknown population size, while cold weather use would have been through the exploitation of resources by communal hunting parties taking advantage of seasonal deer aggregation.

Figure 7  
Early Archaic Corner-Notched Projectile Points/Knives



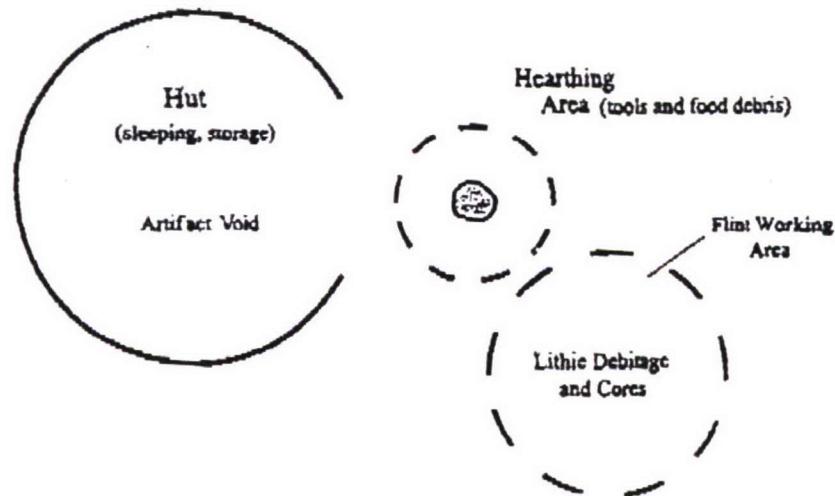
Work on Carolina Bay sites by Brooks et al. (1986) indicate that they may have existed as open water lakes into the early Holocene on the otherwise dry interfluves that made them very attractive to Paleoindian and Early Archaic populations. However, paleoenvironmental and geomorphological work at Big Bay is very limited and we do not yet fully understand how the environmental conditions changed through time (Brooks et al. 1998). At several Carolina Bay sites they examined, artifact density, raw material variability, and assemblage diversity, including late-stage biface production from non-local raw material, indicated an occupational intensity, which rivals that of river terrace-associated sites. They note that a common element of the widely accepted, river-centric models of hunter-gather adaptation is the notion of movement along rivers, with the dispersion of small socioeconomic units from base camps on the river terraces into adjacent uplands. However, in view of the large band territories and high mobility of early hunter-gatherers, the nature and intensity of occupation indicated by these bay-associated sites suggests that at least some regional movement was along and across high upland divides, rather than strictly following river and tributary stream valleys. They believe that the production of bifaces from non-local raw material suggests a direct and immediate connection with source areas, rather than a circuitous and slow transit along a river and up its tributaries to Carolina bays. Therefore, the bay data indicate that terminal Pleistocene-early Holocene human movement and organization was much more complex (or flexible) than suggested by river-centric models (Brooks et al. 1986: 481-504).

The tool assemblage of these Archaic camps is interesting. Intuitively, one might think that higher incidences of curated tools indicate longer stays since those tools should have longer use lives, but the normal pattern on early-Holocene living floors throughout North America is the apparent contradictory occurrence of high proportions of curated tools in low diversity tool assemblages (Cable 1996: 131-138). Theoretically, a low diversity of tool types is often regarded as an indicator of short duration stays because the window of opportunity to discard tools is very narrow (see Shott 1986). However, Cable (1996: 131-133) has shown that resharpening and tool maintenance strategies are most profitably applied in situations where the intention is to extend the immediate utility of an item that is used to perform a redundant and intensive processing task over a relatively short period of time. A good example of such a tool is the hafted end scraper. In ethnographic accounts (Hayden 1979:224-225) such tools were used to scrape dry hides and this function caused extreme abrasive wear on bit edges and created the need to resharpen numerous times during the processing of one single hide. It follows that intensive processing of hides would create a situation in which unusually high proportions of a specific curated tool type (i.e., end scrapers) would be discarded in an otherwise low tool diversity context (Cable and Cantley 1998: 330). The debitage created at the possible Paleoindian and Hardaway-Dalton component at 38SU145 support this conclusion. The debitage is characterized by very low debitage densities and very small debitage sizes. This indicates an emphasis on tool maintenance with very little core reduction, a contention that is strengthened by the low incidence of cortex in these assemblages.

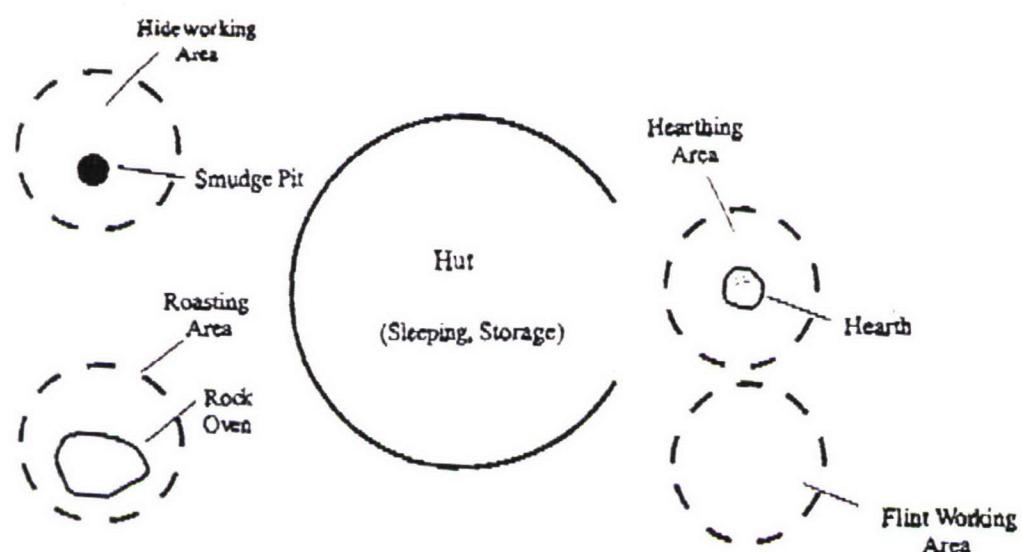
Based on ethnographic data, archaeological data from the Tennessee River Valley (Kimball 1981) and the Aiken Plateau (Sassaman 1993), and data recovered from work at several sites on Poinsett ECR, Cable and Cantley (1998) have used a model for Archaic households (Figure 8). They contain three basic structural units, which are:

- Huts/sleeping areas: inferred to exist immediately adjacent to stone tool concentrations and opposite lithic reduction areas. Archaeologically, they are reflected by artifact voids.
- Hearthing areas: located immediately adjacent to the huts/sleeping area. Archaeologically, they are reflected by a concentration of tools and food debris.

Figure 8  
Archaic Household Models

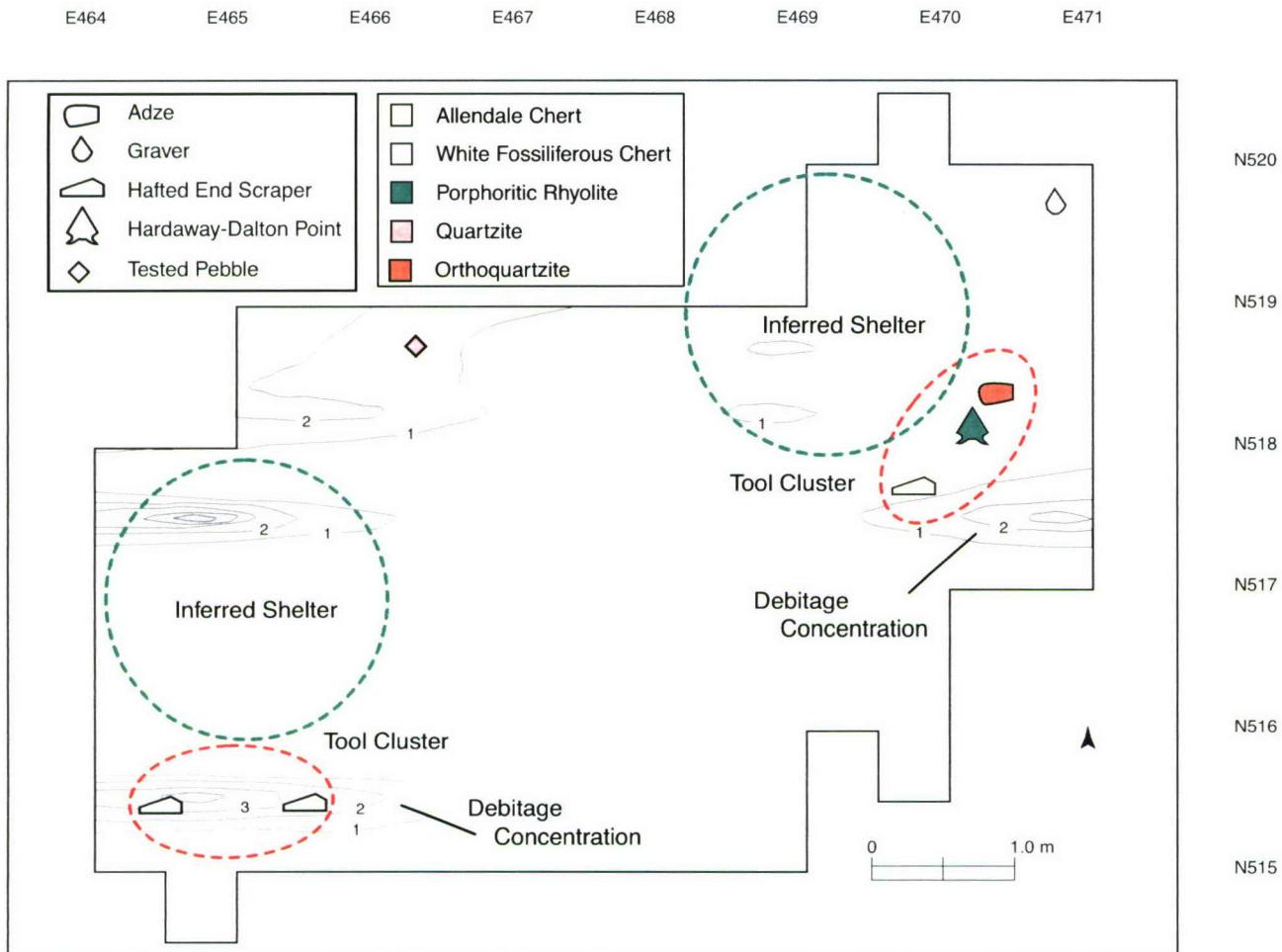


Generalized Archaic household model for the South Carolina Coastal Plain



Kimball's (1981) early Archaic household model for the Little Tennessee River valley

Figure 9  
Hardaway-Dalton Floor at 38SU145



38SU145 - Block 3 Hardaway-Dalton Surface (Levels 4 through 6)

Debitage Contours = 1/0.25 m<sup>2</sup>

- Lithic reduction areas: located just beyond or adjacent to the hearthing areas. Archaeologically, they are reflected by a large quantity of lithic debitage and the presence of cores.

Kimball's (1981) work in the Tennessee River Valley has also found evidence of rock ovens and hide working areas, which have not yet been found in the Carolinas. These areas were located behind huts, presumably to shield the entrances from intense, smoke-generating activities associated with hide working and oven roasting. Cable and Cantley (1998:330) believe such features will be difficult to identify in Coastal Plain sites where rocks may not have been used in pit roasting due to a general scarcity of lithic raw material and where soil conditions dictate the poor preservation of fired facilities (see Figure 8).

At 38SU145, the Early Archaic Hardaway-Dalton floor (Figure 9) differed from the possible Paleoindian floor (Figure 5) and a common thread was recognized between Early and Middle Archaic components at the Blackwater Ponds sites. It is the spatial segregation between lithic reduction areas (concentrations of debitage) and stone tool concentrations. Stone tools tended to occur on the edges of the debitage concentrations, not within the areas of greatest density. In the rare instances where co-occurrences did exist, the tools were items that are commonly associated with lithic reduction, such as preforms, bifaces, cobbles, and core fragments (Cable and Cantley 1998: 320).

A total of 13 sites with Early Archaic components have been subjected to archaeological testing or data recovery. Four of those which were found to be significant have been subjected to data recovery. Significant Early Archaic sites are summarized in Table 1. It is believed that these sites can provide cumulative information regarding questions of site structure, intrasite spatial patterning, and Early Archaic tool assemblages.

*Table 1. Significant sites with Early Archaic components.*

<b>Site #</b>	<b>Location</b>	<b>Phase</b>	<b>Source</b>	<b>Eligibility</b>
38SU18	Ridge next to Brunson Swamp	Testing	Cantley et al. 2002	Eligible
38SU45	Blackwater Pond	Data Recovery	Cable and Cantley 1998	Mitigated
38SU51	NE corner Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU136/137	NW corner Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cantley and Cable 2002a	Mitigated
38SU141	NW Corner Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cantley and Cable 2002a	Mitigated
38SU145	Blackwater Pond and NW corner Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cable and Cantley 1998	Mitigated
38SU181	W side Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU182/208	NW corner Big Bay South	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU191	Ridge north of Big Bay North	Testing	Banguilan et al. 2004	Eligible
38SU215	W side Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU222	Ridge north of Big Bay North	Testing	Banguilan et al. 2004	Eligible
38SU290	in Big Bay North, North end	Testing	Botwick et al. 2004	Eligible
38SU299	Terrace overlooking Long Creek	Testing	Banguilan et al. 2005	Eligible

Near the end of the Early Holocene, during the Palmer phase of the Early Archaic period, archaeology in the Big Bay area indicates that there was a shift toward finer grained foraging adaptation. The occupations are characterized primarily by white fossiliferous and Allendale chert use at 38SU136/137

and 38SU141 and were comprised of what appears to be multi-household occupations. This conclusion is based on the similarities of the camp structures to those of later time periods in the region.

Since the primary sources of lithic raw materials are located between 25 and 60 miles from Big Bay, it appears that the groups were traveling long distances between camps and still operating within highly mobile and extensive settlement systems (Cantley and Cable 2002a: 335).

### MIDDLE ARCHAIC

Middle Archaic lithic technologies are significantly transformed from Early Archaic ones. End scrapers are discontinued (Cable 1982b, 1992b; Kimball and Chapman 1977), raw material proportions tend to reflect local availability (Blanton 1983; Goodyear et al. 1979:111; see also Sassaman and Anderson 1994:157-169), and cryptocrystalline materials are de-emphasized as distance to source increases. Other aspects of material culture also indicate changing organization. Storage pits occur with Middle Archaic levels at Russell Cave (Griffin 1974) and prepared burials begin to occur with frequency in Tennessee (Chapman 1977: 112-114). One commonly referenced trend is the notion that ground stone tools increase dramatically during the Middle Archaic. The identification of a large ground stone tool assemblage from the Early Archaic deposits at Rose Island (Chapman 1975:153-170), however, has led Bruce Smith (1986:18-21) to cogently argue that there does not appear to be a measurable difference between Early and Middle Archaic use of ground stone on the basis of present evidence and that there is no compelling reason to suggest that a ground stone technological revolution took place during the Middle Archaic in the Southeast.

Numerous studies (Carlson 1979; Goodyear et al. 1979:111; Hanson 1982:18-19; Morrow and Jeffries 1981) argue that these lines of evidence point to increased sedentism and a reduction of mobility. Alternatively, Cable (1982a) has suggested that Middle Archaic groups adapted to the Holocene warming trend through increased residential mobility. These two positions are not necessarily incompatible. The drastic increase in Middle Archaic sites documented throughout the Southeast suggests that population levels were continuing to expand, which would almost certainly entail a contraction of local group territories (see Steponaitis 1986:372). This in turn would have created pressures to intensify exploitation in foraging radii by moving residences more frequently or increasing group sizes. It is unlikely that territories would have been small enough to exploit the entire home range from a single residence until more intensive subsistence technologies such as horticulture or agriculture were incorporated into the subsistence base. Thus, range-reduced, high residential mobility under intensification conditions may in fact represent a common stage in the development of sedentism. Other researchers on the Atlantic Slope have noted a similar tendency toward increased residential mobility in the Middle Archaic, especially during the earlier phases (Anderson and Hanson 1988, Anderson and Schuldenrein 1985; Blanton and Sassaman 1989; Cantley et al. 1984; Sassaman and Anderson 1994).

Bruce Smith (1986:26) argues that the strongest evidence for increased sedentism occurs in the terminal Middle Archaic and consists of a series of prepared clay house floors recovered from middle and late Holocene contexts in Alabama and Mississippi (Ensor and Studor 1983; Rafferty et al. 1980:263-269). Concurrent with these developments was aquatic resource intensification along the river systems of the Mid-Continent (i.e., Tennessee, Cumberland, Green Rivers). Some of the settlements associated with this intensification contain enormous middens and are characterized as either permanent villages or, more often, semi-permanent, seasonal base-camps (see Ensor and Studor 1983; Klipple and Turner 1983; Jeffries 1982; Steponaitis 1986:372; Smith 1986:22-24). Similar evidence of riverine and/or coastal resource

intensification is not documented for the Atlantic Slope until about 5,000 to 4,500 B.P. (Claflin 1931; Milanich and Fairbanks 1980; Stoltman 1974). This may indicate less extreme pressures to make more sedentary adjustments in this area of the Southeast.

Climatic and environmental pressures to adjust settlement systems in the direction of greater residential mobility in the Middle Holocene may have been offset at some point by range reduction due to tighter population packing (Anderson and Joseph 1988: 130-131). One factor evidencing range reduction is the shift toward a heavy reliance on local lithic materials during the Middle Archaic (Blanton and Sassaman 1989; Sassaman 1983). Greater residential mobility may very well have typified later Early Archaic and early Middle Archaic settlement systems regardless of gradual range reduction processes (see Sassaman and Anderson 1994), but other factors toward the latter half of the Middle Archaic period probably hastened a shift back toward logistical strategies, albeit within a much reduced range. One such factor on the coastal plain and coastline was the formation of swamps and estuaries as sea level began to stabilize (Brooks et al. 1989). Moreover, the Middle Holocene climate appears to have been drier, but also more variable, suggesting to Blanton and Sassaman (1989) that at least the coastal plain environment was becoming patchy and therefore would have presented Middle Holocene foragers with the opportunity to exploit an environment with increasing spatial resource segregation. Consequently, pressures toward a reversion to logically oriented settlement systems may have been manifest earlier in the coastal plain than in the piedmont.

Previously discussed were observations on Archaic site structure. Work at 38SU136/137 and 38SU141 illustrated that during the Palmer phase of the Early Archaic period, there was a shift toward a finer grained foraging to adapt to changing circumstances. Table 2 provides summary data on Early and Middle Archaic lithic scatters excavated at Poinsett ECR. Those listed as "unidentified" are placed within this time period based on their similar structural properties and the general depth at which the deposits were encountered. These occupations were characterized by white fossiliferous and Allendale chert and consisted of multi-household residences. The primary elements consist of small debitage concentrations measuring 2 to 3 meters in diameter with one or more tool clusters distributed around its periphery. These tool clusters are believed to represent hearthing areas next to which shelters were erected. The cherts found at these clusters are located in the Edisto and Savannah River valley (see Anderson et al. 1982), which are 25 to 60 miles from Poinsett ECR. This suggests the possibility that these groups were traveling long distances between camps and were still operating with highly mobile and extensive settlement systems. Alternatively, these materials may have been obtained through trade with other groups who lived closer to these sources. In contrast to earlier occupations, these groups were larger, consisting of three or more social units, probably nuclear families in most cases. Judging by the relatively large number of tools discarded, it is probable that these camps were occupied for several weeks (Cantley and Cable 2002a: 335).

Significant Middle Archaic sites identified at Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR are summarized below in Table 3. The vast majority are associated with the Big Bay environmental feature. Two sites (38SU18 and 38SU299) are not associated with Big Bay. Site 38SU18 is located adjacent to Brunson Swamp, while 38SU299 is the only site on Shaw AFB proper and is situated on a terrace of Long Creek.

Cantley and Cable (2002a: 337) found that raw material profiles for the Middle Archaic in the Big Bay region consists of a higher proportion of local (orthoquartzite and Manchester chert) and potentially local (quartz) sources and a decided shift toward rhyolite use at the expense of coastal plain cherts. They conclude that this suggests a finer-grained exploitation of the Big Bay region and an increased importance

Figure 10  
Stanley Floor: Block 3, 38SU136/137

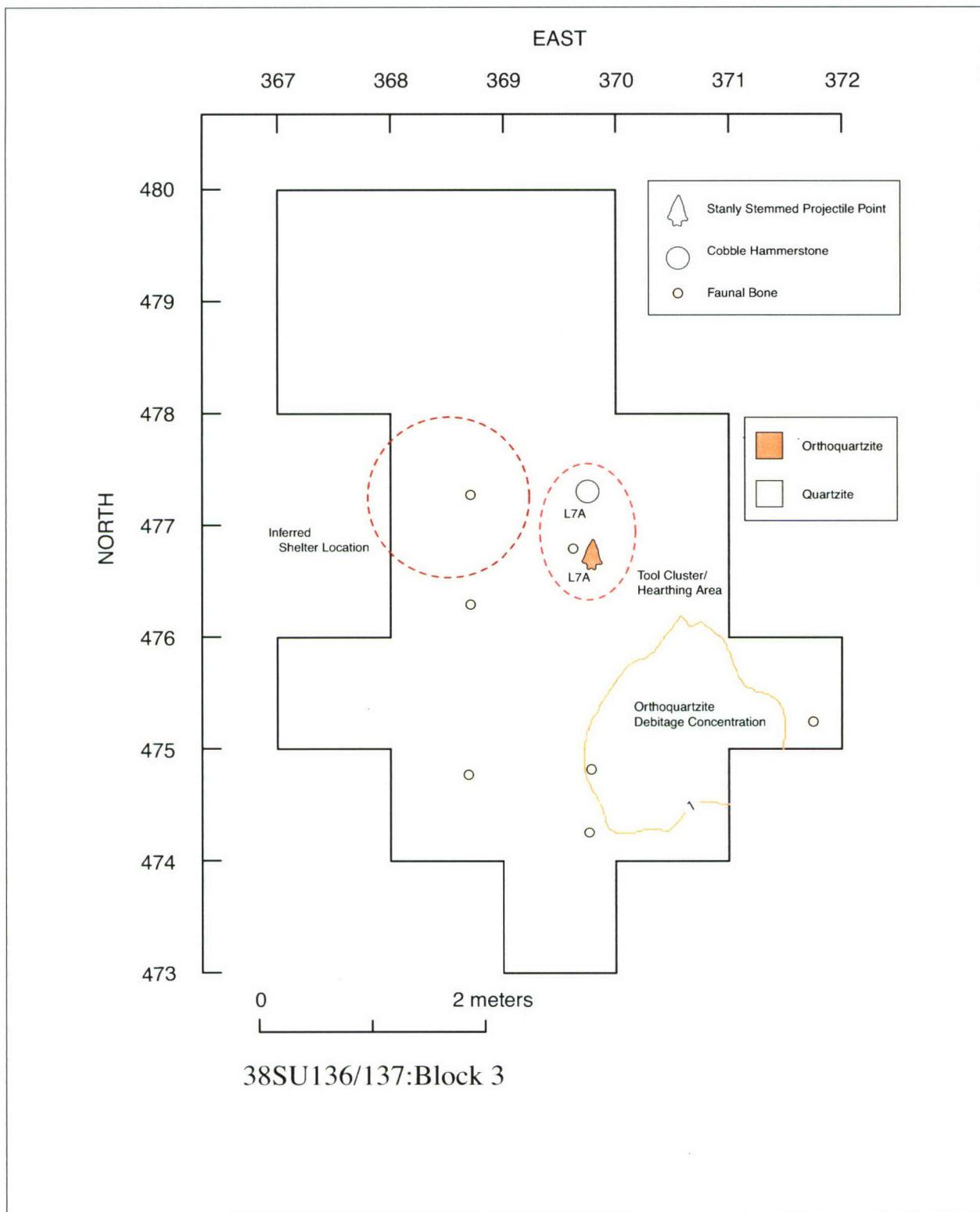


Table 2. Early and Middle Archaic floors excavated at Poinsett ECR.

Site	Size	Blocks	Sample Location	Components
38SU145	25 x 30 m	1	Central	Early Archaic
38SU145	15 x 35 m	3	Central	Hardaway-Dalton; Paleoindian
38SU145	10 x 25 m	2, 7	Peripheral, Central	Unidentified
38SU45	20 x 30 m	11	Central	Unidentified
38SU45	20 x 30 m	8	Central	Morrow Mt./Kirk
38SU45	10 x 20 m	9	Peripheral	Unidentified
38SU45	15 x 40 m	None		
38SU45	25 x 30 m	12	Central	Palmer
38SU45	10 x 20 m	13	Peripheral	Unidentified
38SU45	10 x 10 m	14	Central	Morrow Mt.
38SU133	10 x 10 m	6	Peripheral	Unidentified
38SU136/137	3 x 3 m	1	Central	Stanly
38SU136/137	4 x 5 m	1	Central (2 camps)	Morrow Mt./White Springs
38SU136/137	4 x 3 m	2	Central	Stanly
38SU136/137	4 x 3 m	3	Central	Stanly
38SU136/137	4 x 3 m	4	Central	Palmer

Table 3. Significant sites with Middle Archaic components.

Site #	Location	Phase	Source	Eligibility
38SU18	Ridge overlooking tributary of Brunson Swamp	Testing	Cantley et al. 2002	Eligible
38SU45	Blackwater Pond, west of Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cable and Cantley 1998	Mitigated
38SU51	NE corner Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU136/137	NW corner Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cantley and Cable 2002a	Mitigated
38SU182/208	NW corner Big Bay South	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU191	Ridge north of Big Bay North	Testing	Banguilan et al. 2004	Eligible
38SU209	SE Corner of Big Bay North	Testing	Cantley and Swanson 2003	Eligible
38SU243	East side of small bay north of Big Bay North	Testing	Cantley et al. 2002	Eligible
38SU290	in Big Bay North, North end	Testing	Botwick et al. 2005	Eligible
38SU299	Terrace overlooking Long Creek	Testing	Banguilan et al. 2005	Eligible

on upland locales. Figure 10 shows a Middle Archaic Stanly floor in Block 3 of 38SU136/137 containing quartzite and orthoquartzite debitage and tools.

In addition, there is a shift toward the utilization of rhyolite at the expense of coastal plain cherts by the Morrow Mountain phase (Figure 11-12). This could indicate a shift in territorial range configuration toward the north. Allendale chert is absent from the profile and white fossiliferous chert may have been derived from the nearby Edisto drainage system. Since the Middle Archaic groups were operating in the area at the peak of the Hypsithermal drought, increasing proportions of local lithic raw materials suggest that there were other pressures on settlement systems to exploit the area in a more fine-grained manner than before. Population pressure may have impacted mobility options and reduced the territorial ranges, which requires subsistence adjustments to extract the same level of nutrition from a smaller area (see Binford 1980: 208-213). In relatively unchanged environments these adjustments would require an expansion of the number

Figure 11  
White Springs/Morrow Mountain Floor, Block 1, 38SU136/137

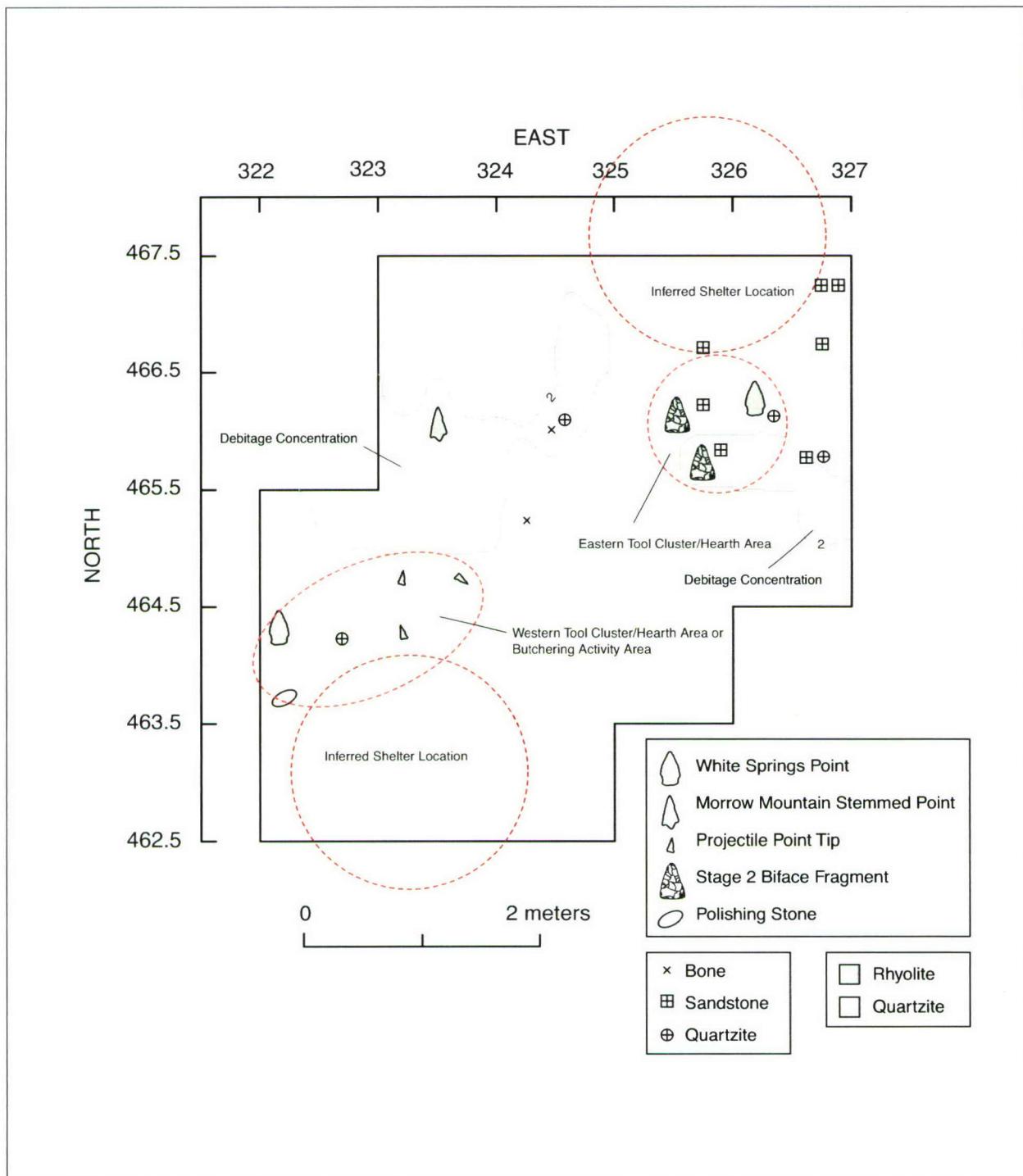
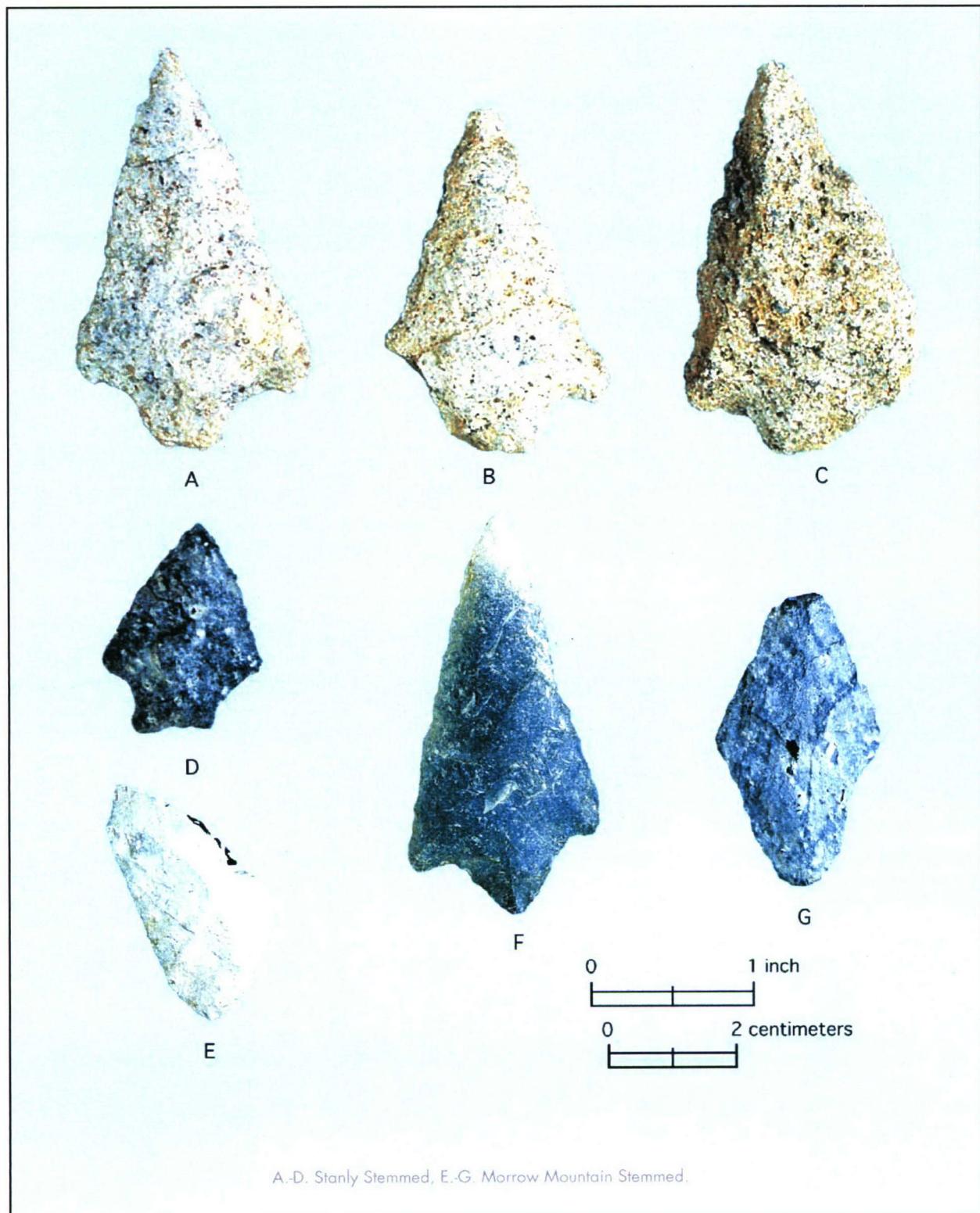


Figure 12  
Middle Archaic Stemmed Projectile Points/Knives



of plant and animal species exploited. This could present something of a crisis to hunter-gatherers as they would have to incorporate smaller species that would require higher labor expenditures to extract and process. Unfortunately, little subsistence data is currently available for the Big Bay area. A turtle bone found in a Middle Archaic context at 38SU136/137 has been found, which is consistent with the expanded spectrum of small animal exploitation (Cantley and Cable 2002a: 341).

### LATE ARCHAIC

The Late Archaic subperiod is transitional to the horticultural-based economies of the Woodland period. Four major trends characterize Late Archaic adaptations across the Southeast: 1) incipient, low-level plant cultivation, 2) dense middens with evidence of dwellings and storage facilities, 3) the initial use of stone and ceramic containers, and 4) intensification of exchange relationships (see Smith 1986:28-42; Steponaitis 1986:373). Most of these are evidenced along the Atlantic Slope, although some aspects are more developed on the Cumberland Plateau and the interior regions of the Gulf States. Large shell middens of Stallings and Thom's Creek affiliation occur throughout the coast and coastal plain river valleys of Georgia and central and southern South Carolina and indicate extensive secondary resource exploitation and the establishment of semi-sedentary villages (Anderson and Sassaman 1994; Claflin 1931; Stoltman 1974). Steatite vessels are widely distributed along the Atlantic Slope and steatite net-sinkers have been found along the coast (Coe 1964: 112-13; South 1959; Stoltman 1972). Pottery was also initially produced during the Late Archaic and is now known to have a similarly wide distribution to that of steatite vessels (Phelps 1983; South 1976). Stone technology indicative of seed processing, such as polished and pecked stone artifacts, mortars, and handstones, are commonly found in Late Archaic sites, as are subsurface storage pits (Stoltman 1972: 48-49). The remnants of a prepared clay floor and scattered post holes at Rabbit Mount, South Carolina provides further evidence of more stable habitations (Stoltman 1972).

Evidence of cultivation is one aspect of the generalized set of trends for this subperiod that is not yet well defined for the Atlantic Slope. The so-called Mexican "container" domesticates (i.e., bottle gourd and squash) and weedy seeds that evidence domestication in later Woodland period deposits are present in Late Archaic assemblages in Tennessee, Kentucky, Illinois, and Missouri (Chapman and Shea 1981:70; Conrad et al. 1984; Cowan 1984:236-239, Cowan et al. 1981; Kay et al. 1980:818). This contrast between the two areas, however, may simply reflect differences in the intensity and history of archeological research rather than actual developmental differences. Recently, a macroplant specimen of bottle gourd (*Lagenaria siceraria*) from a burial at the Windover site in east-central Florida was radiocarbon dated at  $7,290 \pm 120$  B.P. (Doran et al. 1990), suggesting that cultivation began as early, or even earlier, in some regions of the Atlantic Slope. Similarly early radiocarbon dates (ca. 7,000 B.P.) for squash (*Cucurbita pepo*) have been obtained from sites in Illinois (Asch and Asch 1982), and as a consequence it is becoming increasingly probable that low level cultivation in the Southeast was well underway in the terminal phases of the Middle Archaic subperiod.

Numerous studies have argued that the early emphasis on sedentism manifest in the dramatic appearance of terminal Late Archaic shell rings and midden sites on the South Carolina and Georgia coasts were the consequence of complex ecological changes of the coastal landscape brought about by sea level rise and fluctuation over the past 5,000 to 6,000 years (Brooks et al. 1989; Colquhoun et al. 1980; DePratter and Howard 1977; Phelps 1983; Trinkley 1989:78). A rather dramatic sea level rise during the middle Holocene was leveling off at this time (Colquhoun et al. 1980) and pollen sequences suggest that pine was replacing oak as the dominant forest arboreal in response to a wetter climate and more hydric soil

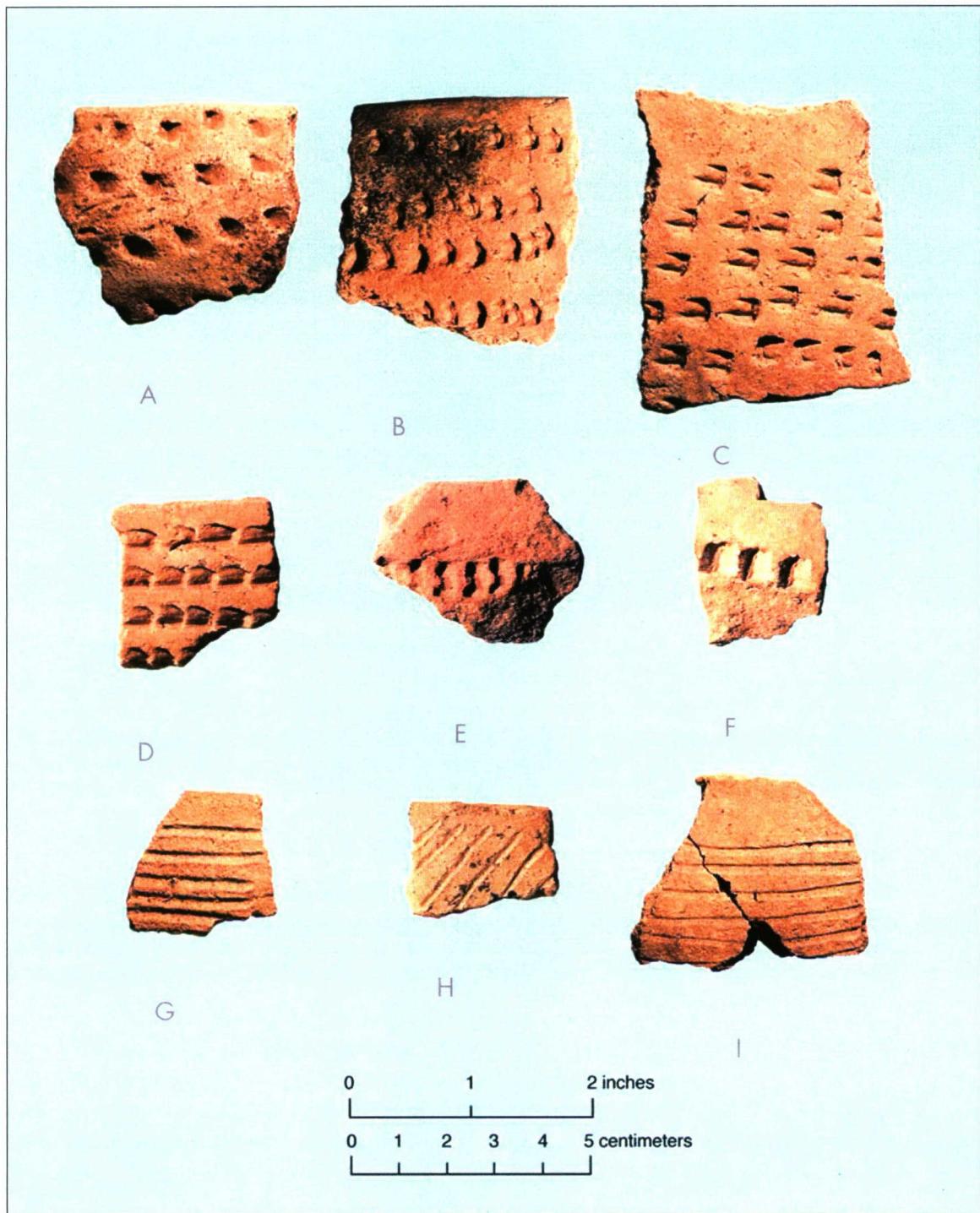
conditions (Brown 1981, Watts 1971). As sea level began to stabilize after about 5,000 B. P. the modern estuarine ecosystems were established and the interior river swamps attained their maximum expression. Sea level has never completely stabilized since the end of the Pleistocene, and a series of 1-2 m. fluctuations have been documented for the period spanning 4,200 to 800 B. P. (Brooks et al. 1986).

Brooks et al. (1989) have related this sequence of environmental changes to perceived changes in the geographic distribution and structure of terminal Late Archaic and Woodland shell middens and terrestrial sites on the South Carolina coastal plain. Stallings and Thoms Creek shell middens are associated with the initial formation of stable estuaries in the region and although they represent rather sizeable heaps of shellfish refuse in locations south of the Santee River, it is possible that a number of the middens which formed during the regressive interval (dated to 3,800 B. P.) are now submerged below modern sea level. Moreover, a regressive interval between 3,100 and 2,100 B. P. may be responsible for burying Early Woodland shell middens along the coast (see also DePratter 1977, DePratter and Howard 1981).

The Late Archaic middens on the southern South Carolina coast are not only large, but also contain a broad range of estuarine and terrestrial subsistence resources and a high diversity of artifactual material, characteristics that have led a number of individuals to suggest that these early shell middens represent intensive multiseasonal habitations (see also Combes 1975, Hemmings 1970, Michie 1974, 1979, Trinkley 1976, 1980). These stand in sharp contrast to the bulk of the shell middens dating after 3,000 B. P., which are small, thin middens with low artifact density and tool diversity. These later middens are also more numerous and dispersed in distribution, and rather than occurring exclusively along the seaward margin of the mainland and on sea islands, they tend to be located up the mouths of major channels and along the smaller tidal creeks. Brooks et al. (1979:94) suggest that these differences are the result of estuarine expansion as sea level gradually rose over time to its current elevation. It is further suggested that these conditions were conducive to major changes in the distribution and structure of estuarine resources, especially shellfish that became more dispersed in distribution. It is inferred that the shift in resource structure required adjustments in Woodland settlement systems that entailed seasonal dispersal into small social units to effectively exploit the estuaries. Over-exploitation of the largest bars along the mouths of channels might also have contributed to this finer-grained Woodland exploitative pattern (see Trinkley 1981).

Late Archaic systems along interior coastal plain rivers of the Atlantic Slope also appear to have been significantly affected by these changes. Documentation of intensively occupied upland settlements from this time period in the Middle Savannah River Valley has led to a reconstruction that stipulates spring and summer aggregation along the river terraces and fall-winter household dispersion into the headwaters of upland creeks (Brooks and Hanson 1987; Sassaman 1983; White 1982). Furthermore, there are indications that the aggregation sites can be grouped into two hierarchical levels, with the largest sites of this type occurring on the ecotones along the Fall Line (i.e., Stallings Island, Lake Spring) and coast (Bilbo, White's Mound, Cox). The higher order Fall Line aggregation sites are speculated to represent locations where communal anadromous fish harvests were organized and appear to have also served as seasonal villages. Lower level aggregation sites occur near the mouths of tributary streams and they are speculated to represent specialized staging areas for residential groups prior to summer dispersal. Clearly, similar settlement patterns may typify the Santee, Black, Lynches, and Little Pee Dee rivers during the Late Archaic subperiod in central interior South Carolina. Significant Late Archaic sites are summarized below in Table 4. The vast majority of these are associated with the Big Bay environmental feature. An exception is 38SU299 which is located on Shaw AFB proper and is situated along the bank of Long Creek.

Figure 13  
Terminal late Archaic/Early Woodland Thom's Creek Potteries



A.-C. Thom's Creek Reed Separate Punctate; D.-F. Thom's Creek Drag and Jab Punctate;  
G.-I. Thom's Creek Incised (Cantley and Cable 2002a, Figs. 66-67)

Very little evidence for early Late Archaic occupation, as represented by Stallings pottery, has been found in the Big Bay region. So far, no floors from this time period have been isolated. Although numerous other sites have yet to be investigated, there appears to be an occupation hiatus and this may be related to climatic change. Around 5000 BP there was extensive wetland development brought about by increased precipitation and perhaps also a cooling of the global temperature regime (see Brooks et al. 1989: 91-92). At Big Bay it would have reduced the uniqueness of the Bay and opened large tracts of alternative wetlands across the coastal plain (Cantley and Cable 2002a:341).

*Table 4. Significant sites with Late Archaic components.*

<b>Site #</b>	<b>Location</b>	<b>Phase</b>	<b>Source</b>	<b>Eligibility</b>
38SU45	Blackwater Pond west of Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cable and Cantley 1998	Mitigated
38SU51	NE corner Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU107	300m west of Big Bay South	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU133	Blackwater Pond west of Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cable and Cantley 1998	Mitigated
38SU136/137	NW corner Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cantley and Cable 2002a	Mitigated
38SU140	N side of Big Bay North	Testing	Cantley and Swanson 2003	Eligible
38SU141	N side of Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cantley and Cable 2002a	Mitigated
38SU145	Blackwater Pond west of Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cable and Cantley 1998	Mitigated
38SU178	peninsula extending eastward into Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU182/208	NW corner Big Bay South	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU232	peninsula extending eastward into Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU243	East side of small bay north of Big Bay North	Testing	Cantley et al. 2002	Eligible
38SU290	in Big Bay North, North end	Testing	Botwick et al. 2005	Eligible
38SU299	Terrace overlooking Long Creek	Testing	Banguilan et al. 2005	Eligible

Near the terminal Late Archaic, the Big Bay area experienced renewed settlement by Thom's Creek groups. The pattern of settlement was not unlike the earlier Archaic groups. Floors suggest briefly occupied camps composed of small social groups that literally ringed the Bay (see Cliff et al. 1999). There is some evidence that suggests Woodland groups established longer-term hamlets around the bay (Cliff et al. 1999: 416), but thus far, data from 38SU136/137 and 38SU141 were unable to advance this interpretation. It is clear that Thom's Creek and Woodland groups were tied to major stream courses where aquatic resources were exploited in mass and incipient agricultural systems were being developed (see Smith 1986). The resurgence of Big Bay as an important ecotone is probably related not only to this resource intensification, which would have reduced territorial ranges further while increasing population at the same time, but also with changing hydrologic conditions. Brooks et al. (1989: 96) suggest that well-drained locations suitable for exploitation became more saturated. Certainly Big Bay would have provided a unique setting in which extremely well-drained soils ringed a huge wetland area with diverse plant and animal life. Most of the faunal data obtained from Woodland period contexts show a wide range of species including turtles, mollusks, birds, turkeys, small mammals, and deer. Clearly, a well-rounded foraging pattern suggestive of residential occupation with nuclear family type social units is illustrated (Cantley and Cable 2002a: 341).

## THE WOODLAND PERIOD

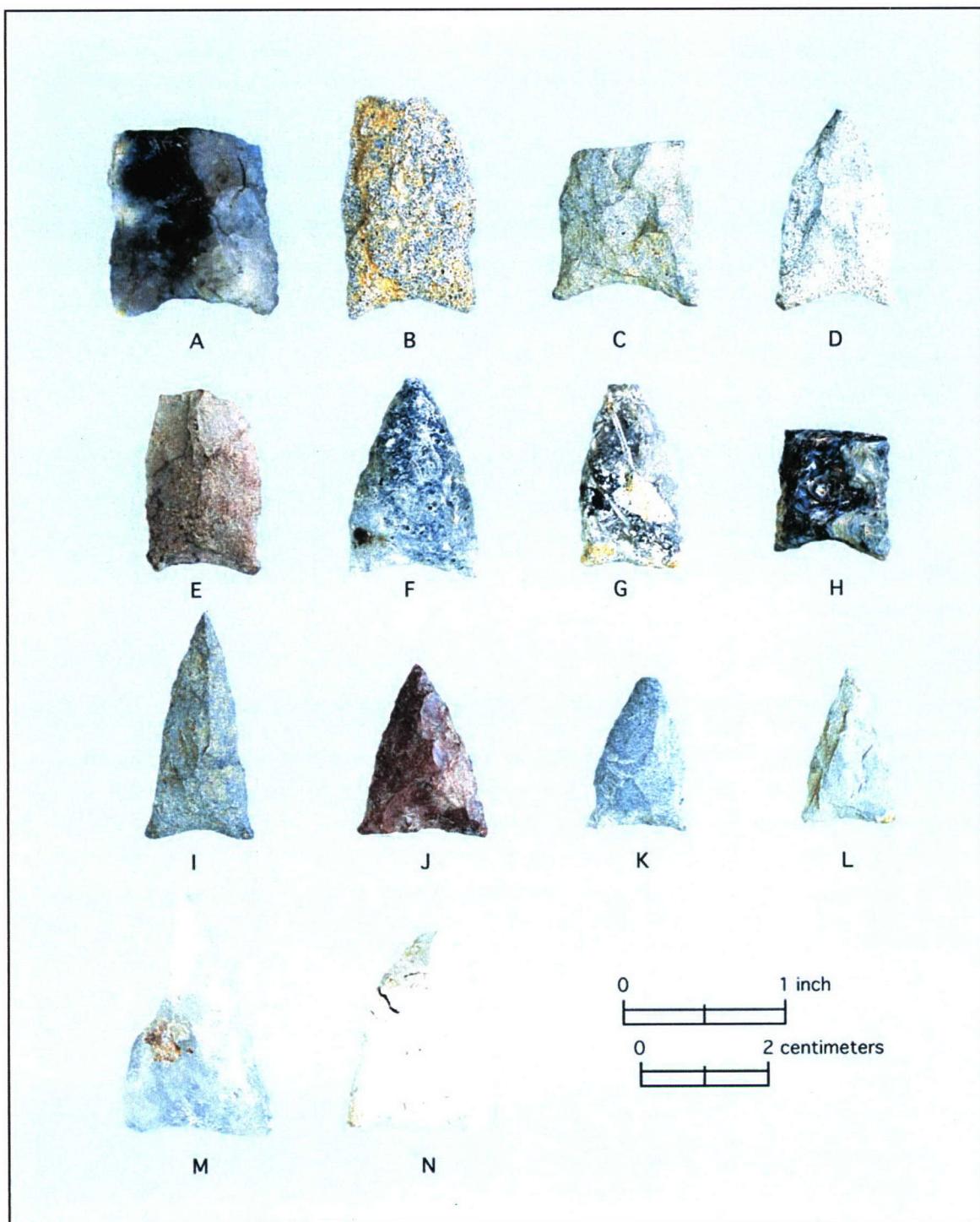
The Woodland period in central South Carolina and surrounding regions spans the time interval between 3,000 and 800 B.P. and is divided into "Early" (3,000-2,600 B.P.), "Middle" (2,600-1,200 B.P.), and "Late" (1,200-800 B.P.) sub periods. In most regions of the Southeast the Late Archaic-Woodland transition is seen as encompassing continuity, with patterns of sedentism intensification gradually building in magnitude (Steponaitis 1986:378-379). These patterns consisted of an increased emphasis on gardening and exploitation of seeds, greater adjustments toward sedentary life ways, and elaboration on mortuary ritual and political control.

Perhaps the most significant development distinguishing the early portion of the Woodland period from the Late Archaic is the full-blown emergence of what Ford (1985:347-349) refers to as the Eastern Agricultural Complex. This complex was composed of indigenous species of seed-producing commensal weeds including sunflower, sump weed, goosefoot, may grass, knot weed, small barley, and giant ragweed. The former three exhibit signs of domestication by the terminal phases of the Late Archaic, while the others appear to have been intentionally transported and cultivated in Late Archaic and Woodland contexts. Bottle gourd and squash represented very early Mexican introductions and along with the Eastern seed complex, formed the basis of the Early Woodland gardening subsystem. Maize was a relatively late entrant into the eastern Woodland groups, with an initial date of appearance of about 1,700 B.P. (Yarnell and Black 1985). In spite of the rather substantial evidence for horticultural activities, isotopic analyses of Early and Middle Woodland skeletal populations do not indicate a dependence on cultigens (Bender et al. 1981, van der Merwe and Vogel 1978).

Evidence for sturdy, possibly permanent, houses is abundant from this time interval. Along the Gulf and Atlantic coasts, the massive shell middens of the Late Archaic sub period are replaced by more diffuse scatters of shell that are interpreted as the refuse from individual households (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980). Settlements appear to be small, ranging in size from about 5 to 10 households, and cover less than a hectare in area. Similarly small Early and Middle Woodland settlements with ample remains of houses have been investigated in the interior Southeast and in the mountains and piedmont of the Atlantic Slope (Keel 1976, McNutt and Weaver 1983). Generally, these settlements are viewed as seasonal in nature, but were annually re-occupied. The character of shell midden morphology and dimensions changes dramatically in the Early and Middle Woodland periods along the South Carolina and Georgia coasts, and may reflect strategic shifts toward settlement patterns similar to those chronicled in the ethnohistoric accounts. The large Thoms Creek middens and rings disappear and the remaining shell middens consist of small, diffuse scatters indicative of short-term, seasonal occupation by small groups. Many of the sites of these periods, in fact, do not even contain shell.

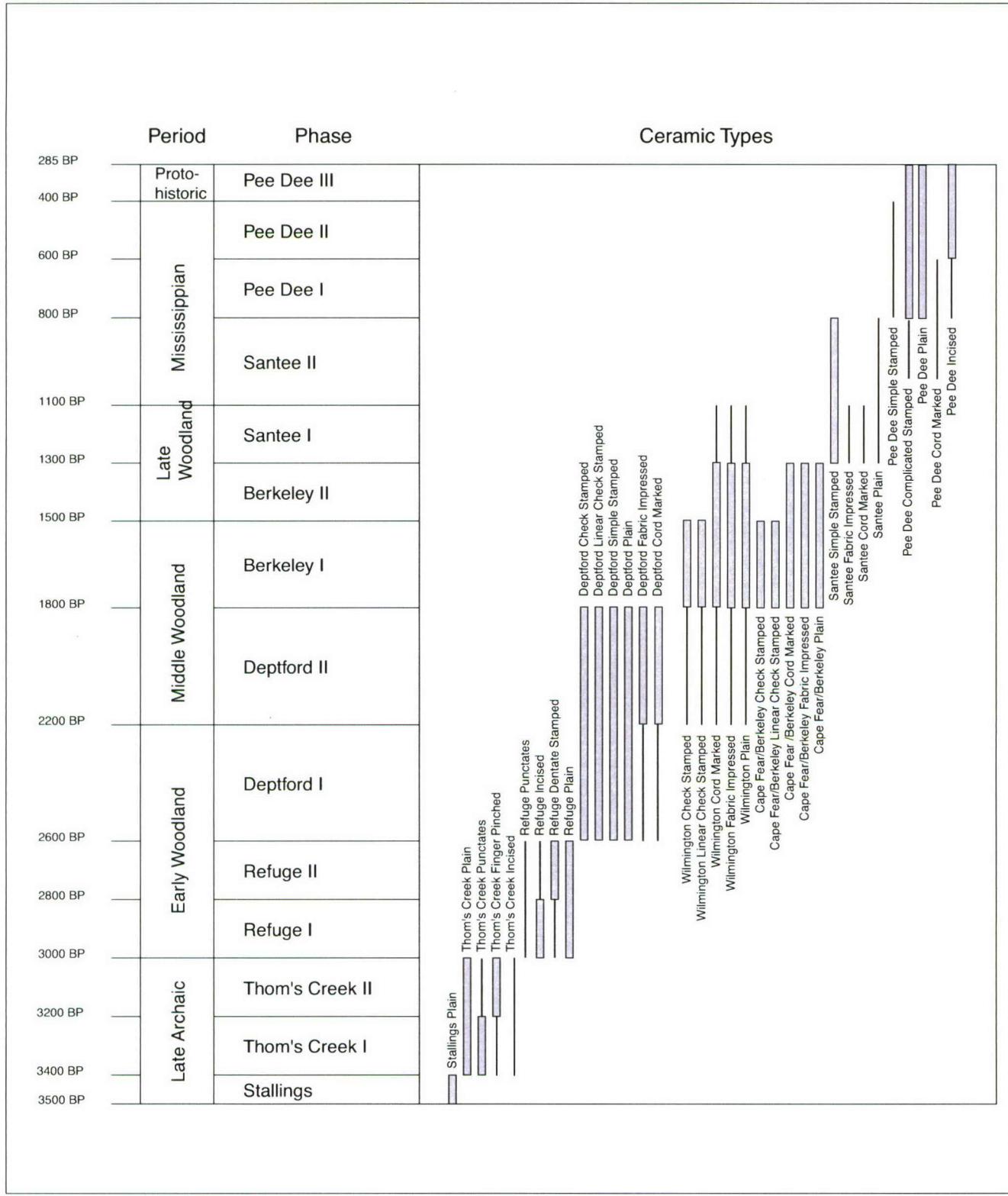
The Middle and Late Woodland periods are perhaps the least well known of any of the ceramic bearing periods in the region. The standard representation for Middle Woodland settlement systems along the central South Carolina coast is credited to Milanich's (1971:214-215, Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:71-75) "seasonal transhumance" model developed for Deptford occupations in Florida. The model stipulates that populations in coastal locations maintained a bi-seasonal settlement pattern involving alternating winter-summer habitations on the coast, used to exploit marine and estuarine resources. Fall habitation areas in the interior were used to gather nuts and hunt terrestrial game. The coastal settlements located in the maritime live oak strand are said to represent small, semi-permanent, non-agricultural villages, while the inland habitations are hypothesized to represent temporary fall encampments occupied by separate nuclear family units. There is evidence to suggest that Middle and Late Woodland subsistence-settlement patterns in

Figure 14  
Woodland Triangular Points



A.-H. Candy Creek; I.-L. Nolichucky; M.-N. Camp Creek

Figure 15  
Provisional Ceramic Sequence for the lower Wateree River Valley



Cantley and Cable 2002; Fig 65

the region were more diverse and less dependent on coastal resources than those of later Mississippian groups (Brooks and Canouts 1984:250-255, Brooks et al. 1989:96), but the details of these patterns have not yet been effectively modeled.

Equally dramatic settlement shifts have been documented for interior riverine localities of the coastal plain. In the Middle Savannah River Valley, evidence for population in-filling has been identified with the abandonment of the large riverine sites of the Late Archaic. The transformation of upland seasonal residences into increasingly permanent settlements during the Early Woodland sub-period has been apparent (Brooks and Hanson 1987). During the Middle Woodland sub-period, infilling is argued to intensify, and river terrace sites are again selected for intense, permanent residential occupation, while dispersed household occupation in the uplands continues and expands into the smaller units. The centralization detected in the Middle Woodland settlement pattern, which might indicate increased social complexity during this interval, appears to fragment during the Late Woodland and a pattern of regularly dispersed, small habitation sites is established.

This Woodland pattern of dispersal may have been manifested much earlier on the northern South Carolina coastline due to an extremely sparse estuarine development here. In fact, no record of sizable Late Archaic or Early Woodland shell middens exists throughout this region or the south coastal zone of North Carolina. During the Mount Pleasant phase, which would correlate temporally with the late Middle Woodland to the south, Phelps (1983:33) observes that there is a shift in small site occupations from tributary streams to major trunk streams on the interior and estuaries in the tidewater zone. He posits that these sites represent seasonal shell gathering camps occupied by only a few extended or nuclear families at any one time. The interior riverine sites are posited to represent similar sized resource extraction camps. Larger village sites may exist, but none have been located and excavated.

Throughout the Southeast and Midwest, the later Early Woodland and the Middle Woodland sub periods mark the beginnings of distinctive mortuary complexes, characterized by the incorporation of burial mound features. These features are commonly regarded as evidence for the emergence of segmented lineages, systems of ranked social status, and "big-man" leadership roles (Brose and Greber 1979, Smith 1986:45-50, Steponaitis 1986:382-383). Typically, such systems are unstable and particularistic. The wide regional diversity in mortuary ritual evinced in these burial mounds is generally regarded as a reflection of these social organizational characteristics.

The Late Woodland has often been characterized as a time of cultural decline. This is primarily because of the apparent simplification of the burial complexes. This view seems biased due to the events surrounding the collapse of the Hopewell Interaction sphere in the Midwest where dramatic declines in the diversity and "exotic" character of grave offerings occurred (Brose and Greber 1979). Over many other areas of the eastern Woodlands, however, the differences are less extreme, and, if anything, reflect a developmental continuum. The burial mound sequence of the Georgia coast exemplifies such a trajectory (Cable et al. 1991; Caldwell and McCann 1941; Thomas and Larsen 1979). It is, nevertheless, generally held that the beginning of this period witnessed a decline in "big-man" authority systems, primarily as a response to population expansion, infilling and dispersal (Smith 1986:52-53). Settlements apparently remained small and subsistence systems changed little, with the possible exception of an increased emphasis on maize agriculture.

Table 5 provides a list of significant Woodland Period sites identified at Shaw AFB and at Poinsett ECR. Note that in most instances, all three subperiods are represented at each of the sites. The analysis of

prehistoric ceramics in the Shaw AFB/Poinsett ECR area has revealed two interesting facts that have long ranging implications for local ceramic sequences in the South Carolina coastal plain. The first is that the Refuge series has a high incidence of sherd and/or grog tempering. The second, which is probably linked to the above, is the tendency for ceramic type proportions of Berkeley and Wilmington series ceramics to vary positively with Deptford series type proportions on a site by site basis. This suggests that the Middle Woodland series are to a great extent, contemporaneous rather than sequentially related. The fact that sherd/grog-tempering is so abundant in the Refuge ceramic phase, which precedes all of these, adds credence to this conclusion. Testing of 20 sites around Big Bay (Cliff et al. 1999) found that approximately 45 percent of the Refuge wares were tempered with grog or crushed sherds and was present on seven of the nine sites containing Refuge components (Cantley and Cable 2002a: 234). In sum, current data makes it difficult to pigeon-hole ceramic types to a particular subperiod and it is clear that the ceramic sequence needs further evaluation and updating.

A thermoluminescence pilot study was directed towards addressing the issue of overlap (Cantley and Cable 2002a). Of interest is that there is a great deal of overlap in standard deviations and that Deptford is not consistently older than Wilmington in the samples selected (Table 6). Statistical comparisons indicate that there is no statistical difference between the Wilmington Check Stamped and Cord Marked and Deptford 2 Check Stamped sherds. The Deptford 1 Check Stamped sherd, however, appears to be different from the other three and by extension is assumed to be older. Whether these dates represent the true ages of the series or variants involved cannot be answered from this small sample.

This information indicates that there is a basis for updating the Poinsett sequence. The chronological depth of the Wilmington and Berkeley series is pushed back to the Deptford 1 phase. The dominance of Wilmington and Berkeley Check Stamped are credited with starting at the beginning of Deptford 1 owing to the abundance of grog/sherd-temper in the earlier Refuge phase. The temporal placement of the other grog/sherd-tempered Wilmington and Berkeley series types is not yet clear and the timing of their first significant contribution is placed at the beginning of Deptford II (Cantley and Cable 2002a: 234).

Each subperiod as it is currently defined is discussed separately below and research issues that have been raised, addressed, or have the potential to be addressed by these sites will be discussed.

#### EARLY WOODLAND

At Poinsett ECR, Thoms Creek occupations (beginning in the Late Archaic) were found at numerous sites. At sites 38SU45, 38SU133, and 38SU145, data recovery excavations encountered eight Thoms Creek surfaces. The standard complex of site structural elements consisted of a partial vessel and diffuse lithic debitage scatters. In Block 4 at 38SU133 an extensive exposure was uncovered, and was the only surface that yielded steatite bowl fragments. There were no dense lithic scatters and no stone tools. This suggests that the Thoms Creek occupations were very brief. The partial vessels appeared isolated and suggested that the floors represented a single household unit (Cable and Cantley 1998: 338). Living surfaces containing Refuge pottery have not been uncovered, although numerous sherds of the pottery type have been recovered (Figure 16).

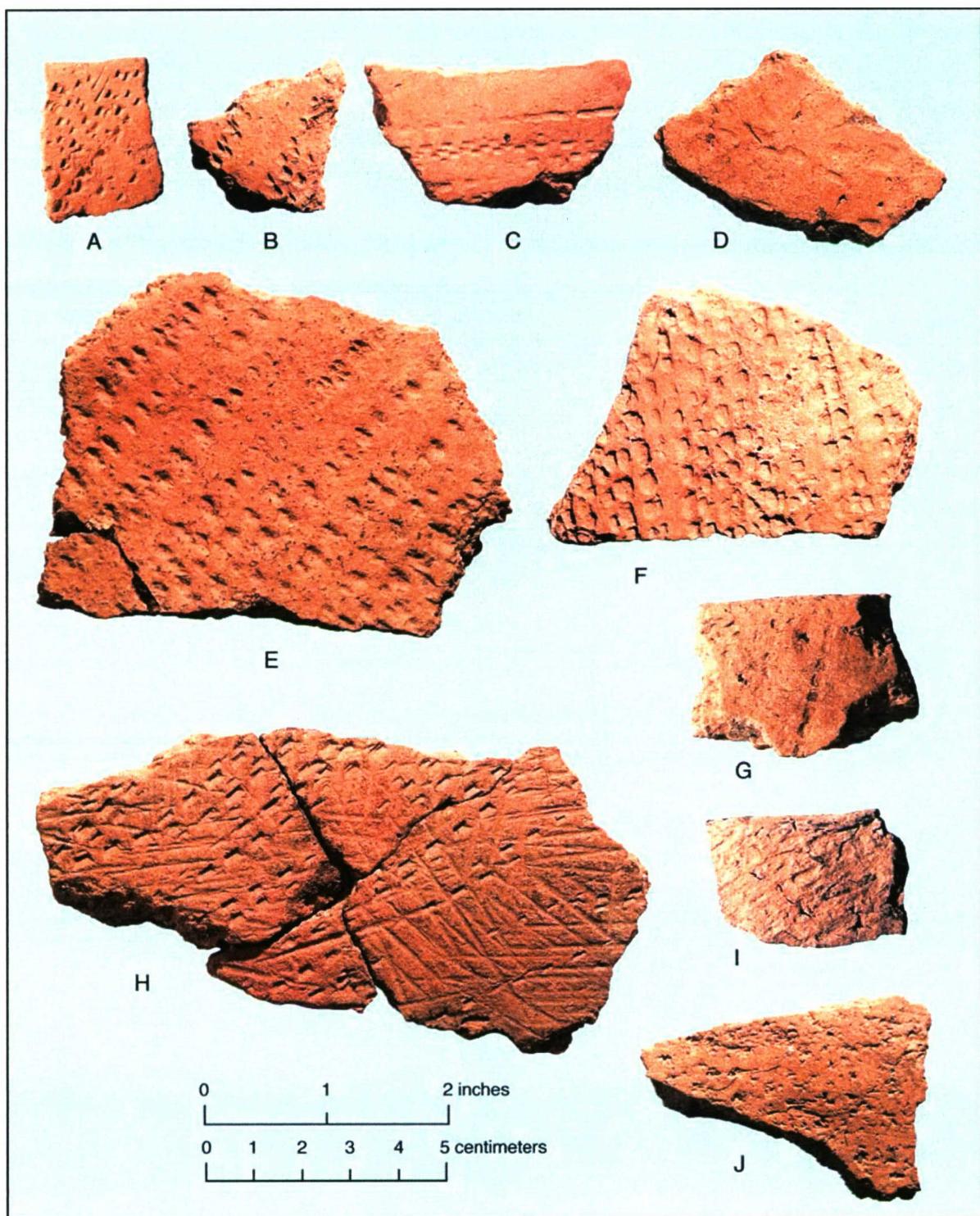
A floor was found in Block 4 at 38SU136/137 (Figure 17). Two partial vessels and scattered sherds from two other vessels were recovered. Three of the vessels were represented by Reed Separate Punctate, while the remaining vessel was represented by Plain sherds. The fact that no whole vessels have been recovered suggests that once they were broken, they were recycled for various purposes such as platters, scoops,

parching trays, etc. Other features of this floor included a quartz debitage concentration and a bone cluster. The bone cluster, which was located between one of the vessels and the quartz debitage concentration is interpreted to represent a hearth area. Bird and deer were represented in that assemblage (Cantley and Cable 2002a: 314-317).

Table 5. Significant Woodland sites at Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR.

Site #	Location	Phase	Source	Eligibility	EW	MW	LW
38SU18	ridge overlooking tributary of Brunson Swamp	Testing	Cantley et al. 2002	Eligible		x	x
38SU45	Blackwater Pond west of Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cable and Cantley 1998	Mitigated	x	x	x
38SU51	NE corner Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU52	NE corner of Big Bay North (off rim)	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU56	West side of Big Bay North	Testing	Chapman et al. 2000	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU106	NW corner Big Bay South	Testing	Chapman et al. 2000	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU107	300m west of Big Bay South	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU133	Blackwater Pond west of Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cable and Cantley 1998	Mitigated	x	x	x
38SU136/13 7	NW corner Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cantley and Cable 2002a	Mitigated	x	x	x
38SU140	N side of Big Bay North	Testing	Cantley and Swanson 2003	Eligible	x	x	
38SU141	N side of Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cantley and Cable 2002a	Mitigated	x	x	x
38SU145	Blackwater Pond west of Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cable and Cantley 1998	Mitigated	x	x	x
38SU167	S side of Big Bay South	Testing	Chapman et al. 2000	Testing	x	x	x
38SU178	peninsula extending eastward into Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU179	West side of Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU180	West side of Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU180	West side of Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU182/20 8	NW corner Big Bay South	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU191	470m north of Big Bay North	Testing	Banguilan et al. 2004	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU203	swamp rim feeding west side of Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU205	S side of drain feeding west side of Big Bay North	Testing	Chapman et al. 2000	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU209	SE side of Big Bay North	Testing	Cantley and Swanson 2003	Eligible	x	x	
38SU215	W side of Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU222	1,200 m N of Big Bay North	Testing	Banguilan et al. 2004	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU232	W side of Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU243	East side of small bay north of Big Bay North	Testing	Cantley et al. 2002	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU290	in Big Bay North, North end	Testing	Botwick et al. 2004	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU292	sand ridge within S edge of Big Bay South	Testing	Botwick et al. 2004	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU294	sand ridge along S rim of Big Bay North	Testing	Botwick et al. 2004	Eligible	x	x	x
38SU299	Terrace overlooking Long Creek	Testing	Banguilan et al. 2005	Eligible	x	x	x

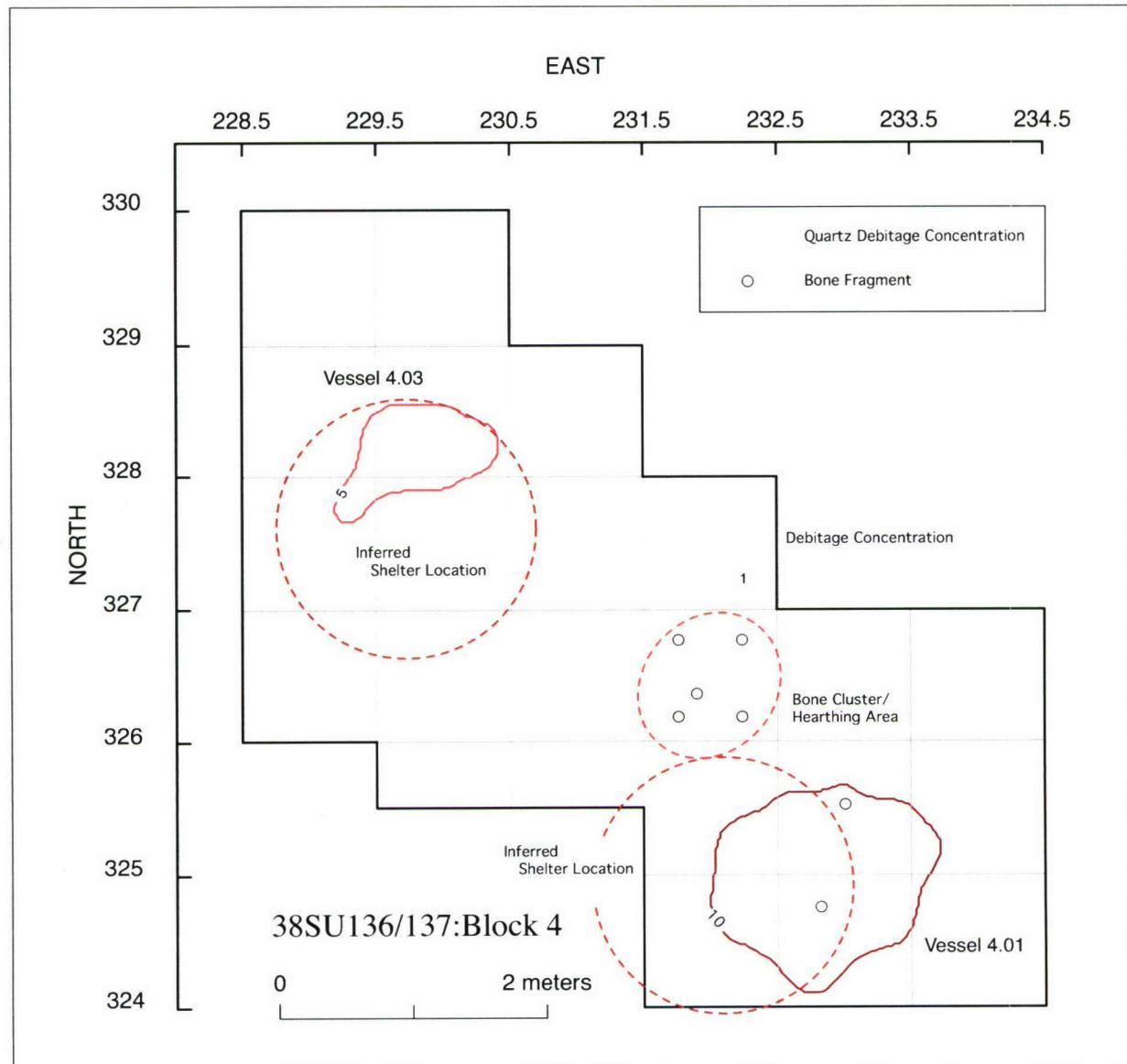
Figure 16  
Early Woodland Refuge Pottery



A.- G: Refuge Dentate Stamped; H.- I.: Refuge Dentate/Simple Stamped;  
J.: Refuge Random Punctate

Cantley and Cable 2002a; Fig 68

Figure 17  
Thom's Creek 2 Floor, Block 4, 38SU136/137



Cantley and Cable 2002a; Fig. 146

Table 6. Thermoluminescence dates from sherd samples in the Big Bay area.

Sample #	Type	Age
UW498	Wilmington Check Stamped	AD 531 +/- 277
UW499	Deptford 2 Check Stamped	AD 477 +/- 114
UW500	Wilmington Cord Marked	AD 291 +/- 191
UW501	Deptford 1 Cord Marked	BC 370 +/- 210

Block 6 at 38SU136/137 also contained a Thoms Creek floor. Two partial Reed Separate Punctate vessels were recovered. A small number of sherds from other vessels were also found. Very little other material (i.e., bone and debitage) was found in this block associated with the Thoms Creek floor. Cantley and Cable (2002a: 320) concluded that the scattered sherds from Thoms Creek vessels in both Blocks 4 and 6 suggests that the area supported an extensive Thoms Creek surface that was regularly reoccupied by small social units. They were unable to determine if the Thoms Creek floors and vessels represented contemporaneous occupations. However, all of the sherds recovered were subsumed under the same sub-series (Thoms Creek 2) suggesting that the time span may have been narrow.

#### MIDDLE WOODLAND

In Block 1 of 38SU141 a Middle Woodland floor was identified in association with an orthoquartzite Candy Creek point and a Manchester Chert Candy Creek point. They appear to be associated with two households (Figure 18). Other items that might be associated with this surface consist of a sandstone cluster located in the northeast corner of the block. This association elsewhere at the site has been interpreted as a possible Manchester chert heat treatment area. A bone cluster was found in the south-central area of the block and may represent a hearthing area associated with the orthoquartzite Candy Creek point. Alternatively, a relatively high density corroded limestone concentration occurs in this area and might indicate the presence of a roasting oven in which game was cooked. Finally, three items suggest that pottery manufacture occurred in this block. These items include two fired grog chunks and a fire fillet. The association with the limestone chunks could indicate a pottery kiln or perhaps the grog and fillet were accidentally fired during the operation of a roasting oven.

Above this level was another Middle Woodland floor associated with the Nolichucky and Coosa point types (Figure 19). Because of their proximity and because they are both manufactured from rhyolite, Cantley and Cable (2002a: 326) believe these points could be contemporaneous. A tool cluster in this block is associated with a bone cluster and a concentration of cortical debitage, both considered to be correlates of a hearthing area.

Occupations with small stemmed points superimposed over occupations with large triangular points runs counter to the assumed evolutionary sequence of projectile points as described by Sassaman et al. (1990: 162-164). The large triangular Candy Creek point and its associated occupation below the Coosa Side-Notched and Nolichucky points, suggest a more protracted period of transition for the replacement of stemmed by triangular points. This process is probably most cogent to regions that are geographically transitional between northern and southern Southeastern locales like the Big Bay area (Cantley and Cable 2002a: 326-329).

Figure 18  
Candy Creek Floor, Block 1, 38SU141

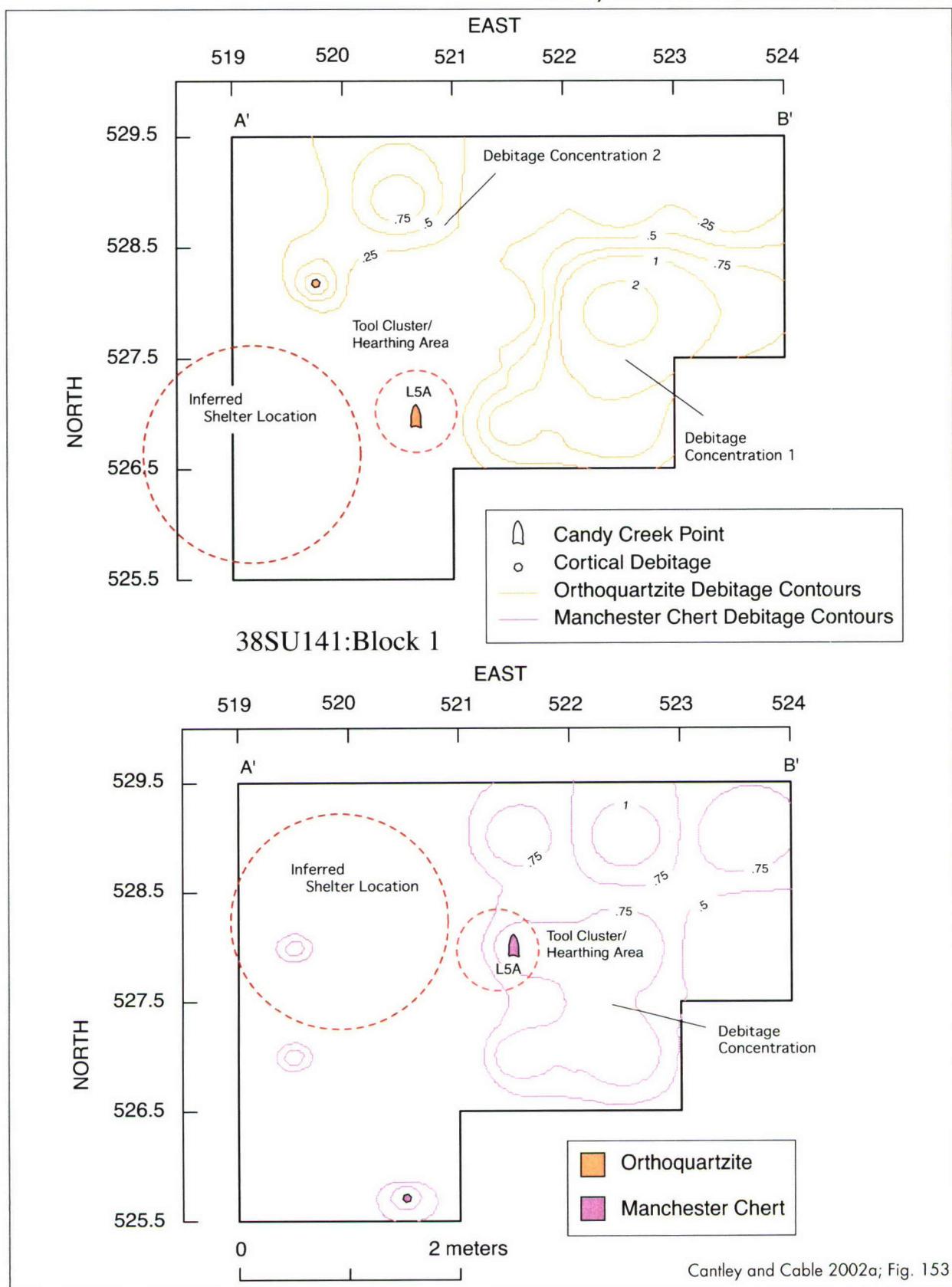
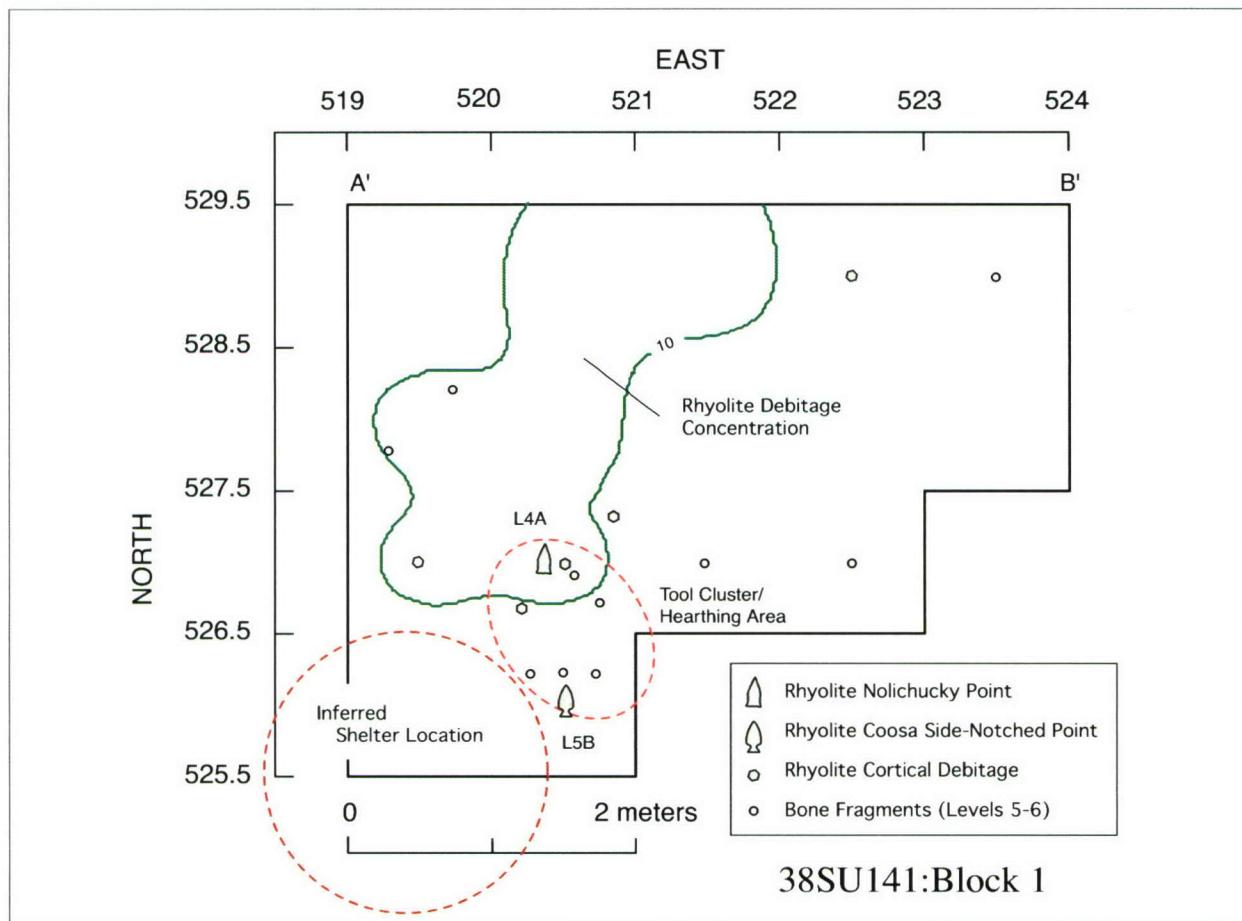
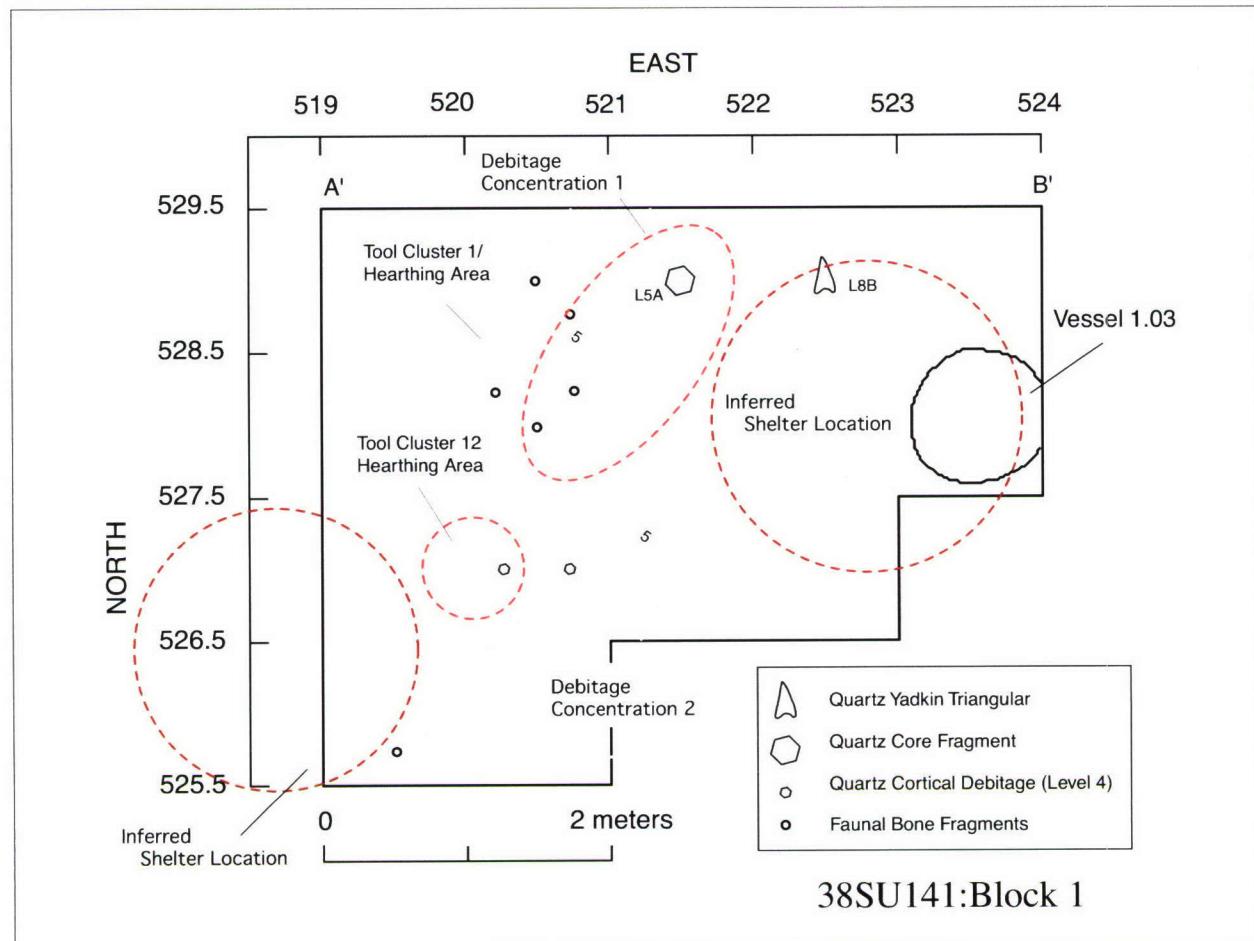


Figure 19  
Nolichucky/Coosa Floor, Block 1, 38SU141



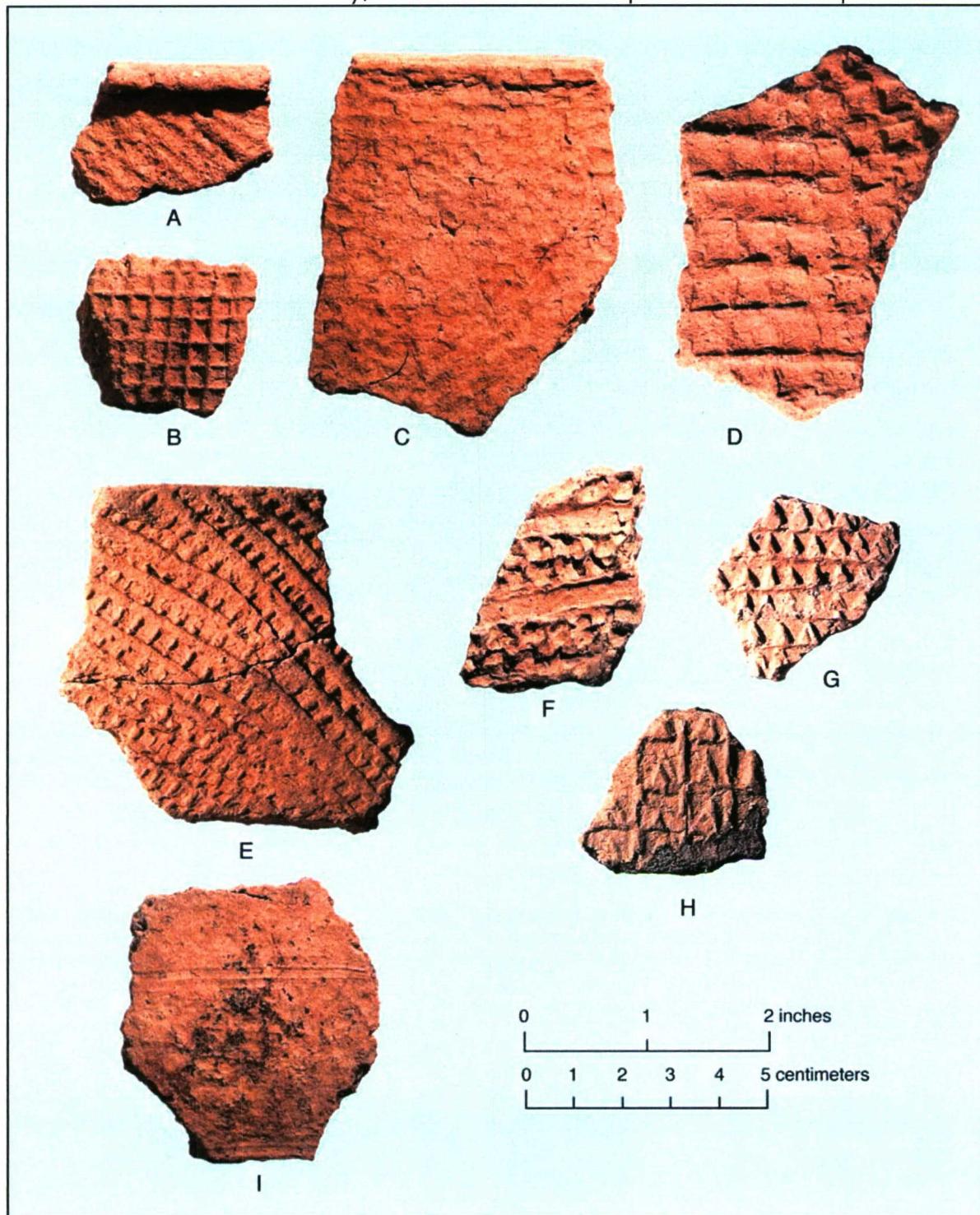
Cantley and Cable 2002a; Fig. 156

Figure 20  
Yadkin Floor, Block 1, 38SU141



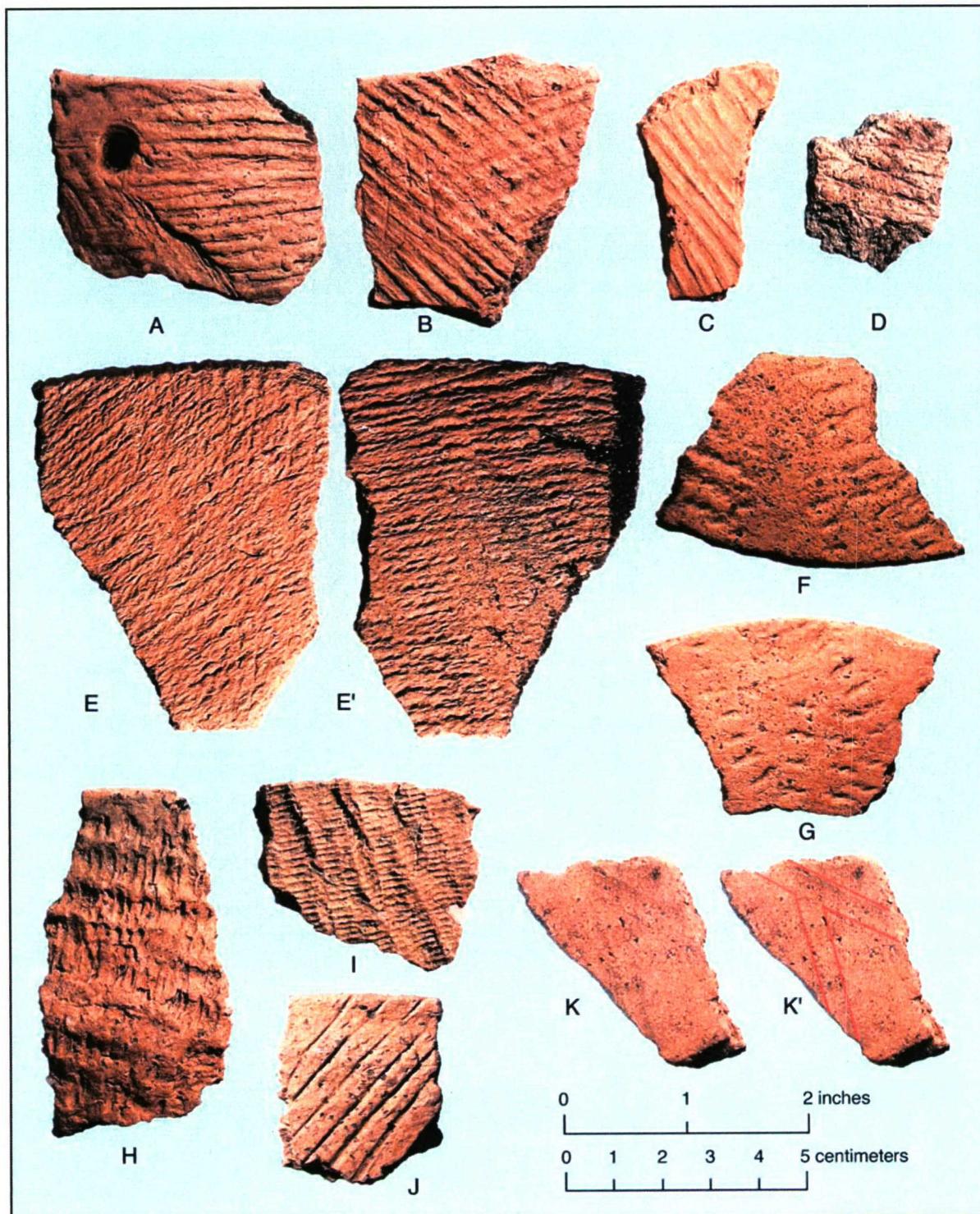
Cantley and Cable 2002a; Fig. 158

Figure 21  
Early/Middle Woodland Deptford Check Stamped Potteries



Cantley and Cable 2002a; Fig. 69

Figure 22  
Other Early/Middle Woodland Deptford Types



A - C: Simple Stamped; D: Brushed; E - E1: Cordmarked; F : Cordmarked wide-spaced impressions; G: cordmarked; Paddleend Application; H: Fabric Impressed, Rigid Warp; I: Fabric Impressed, dowel stamped; J: Incised; K- K1: Broad incised

Cantley and Cable 2002a; Fig. 70

Above these components in Block 1 is an occupation associated with the Yadkin Triangular point type. There were two quartz debitage concentrations in this level. The northern concentration is located primarily in Level 4, while the southern one is primarily in Level 5. This vertical disparity could indicate an age difference. The northern concentration contained the quartz Yadkin point as well as a quartz core fragment. A bone cluster was situated about a meter to the west of the tool cluster in Level 4 and is interpreted to represent a hearthing area. The southern quartz cluster had a partial Berkeley Cord Marked vessel in association. Cantley and Cable (2002a: 330) assumed that vessels were kept inside shelters and this particular vessel is situated in a location and vertical position consistent with the structural properties of the northern household. The two lithic clusters likely represent two households and may be of different time periods, although that could not be concluded from the data recovery by Cantley and Cable (2002a: 330).

Deptford levels at Shaw and Poinsett AFB have not been clearly isolated. Block 4 at 38SU133 yielded a Pee Dee I floor superimposed on a Deptford II level with no stratigraphic separation. However, there was some horizontal separation, as the Middle Woodland component was located in the northern half of the block and the Pee Dee component at the south end. Projectile points in this level, perhaps associated with the Deptford sherds were Nolichucky, Candy Creek, Yadkin Eared, and Baden. Quartz debitage was concentrated at the north end and is believed to have a clear Middle Woodland connection (Cable and Cantley 1998: 344). Unfortunately, the exposure at Block 4 was not large enough to reconstruct structural characteristics.

Archaeological testing at 38SU299 located on Shaw AFB proper, found that lithic debitage associated with the Middle Woodland component appeared to be primarily rhyolite (Banguilan et al. 2005). Additional work at sites with Middle Woodland components will help determine raw material preferences through time.

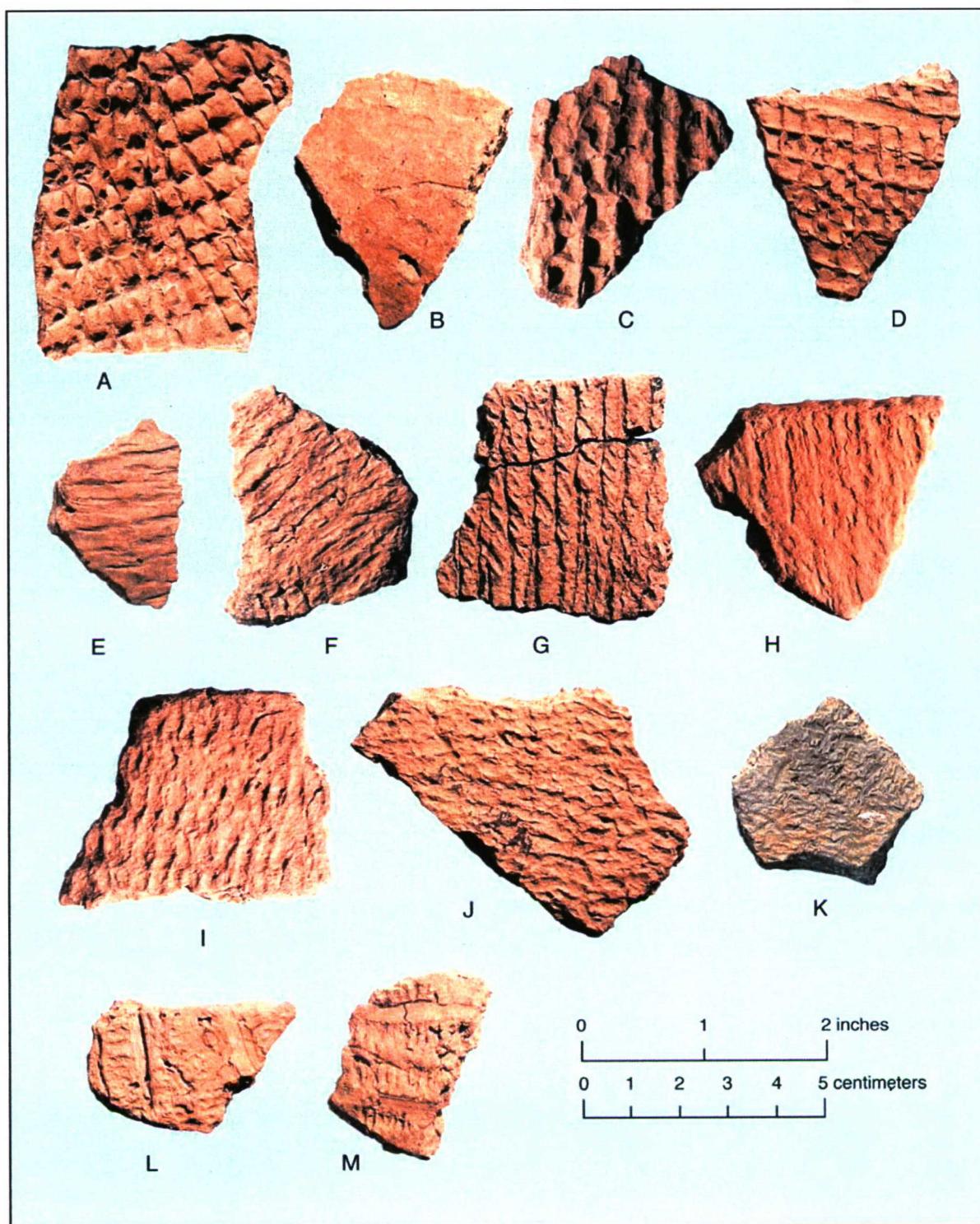
### LATE WOODLAND

Despite the fact that numerous sites have identified Late Woodland components including Wilmington, Berkeley, and Cape Fear phase ceramics, no Late Woodland floors have yet to be exposed in the Big Bay area. There is some evidence that Woodland groups established longer-term hamlets around the Bay (Cliff et al. 1999: 416), but this has yet to be determined. It is clear that Woodland groups were intensively tethered to major stream courses where aquatic resources were exploited en masse and incipient agricultural systems were being developed (see Smith 1986). The resurgence of Big Bay as an important ecotone is probably related not only to this resource intensification, which would have reduced territorial ranges further while increasing population at the same time, but also with changing hydrologic conditions. Brooks et al. (1989: 96) suggest that well-drained locations suitable for exploitation may have become increasingly rare in the uplands as land became more saturated. Certainly Big Bay would have provided a unique setting in which extremely well-drained soils ringed a huge wetland area with diverse flora and fauna. Most of the faunal data from Woodland period contexts show a wide range of species including turtles, mollusks, birds, turkey, small mammals, and deer. This clearly demonstrates a well-rounded foraging pattern suggestive of residential occupations with nuclear-family type social units (Cantley and Cable 2002a: 341).

### THE MISSISSIPPIAN PERIOD

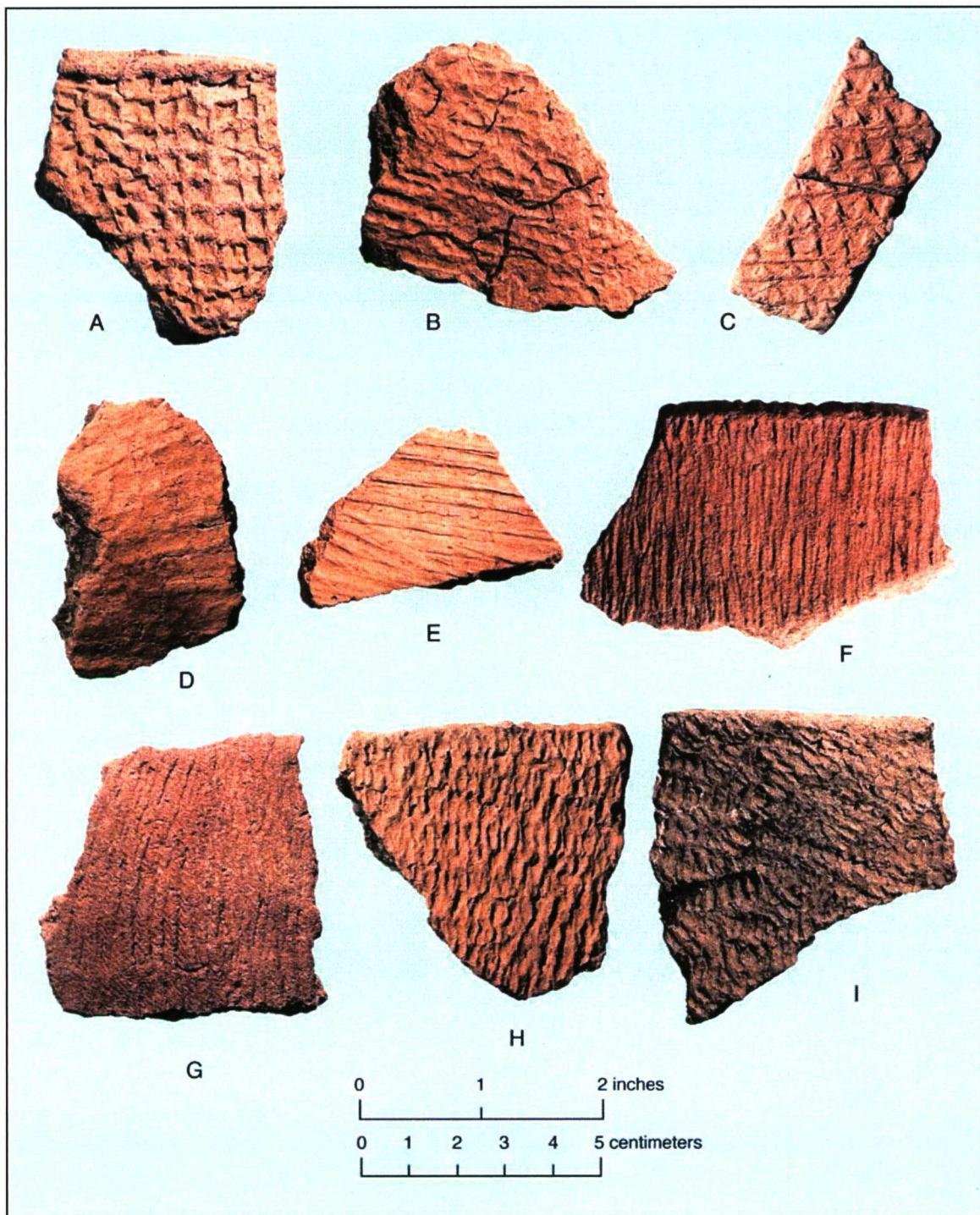
Sometime between about A.D. 1100 and 1200, local ceramic assemblages in western and central North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia begin to show evidence of participation in the South Appalachian

Figure 23  
Middle/Late Woodland Wilmington Pottery



A - B: Check Stamped; C: Linear Checked Stamped; D: Patterned Check Stamped; E: Simple Stamped, Thong Impressed; F : Simple Stamped; G - H: Cordmarked; I: Fabric Impressed, rigid wrap; J: Fabric Impressed, non-rigid wrap; K: Textile Marked; L - M: Impressed/Incised

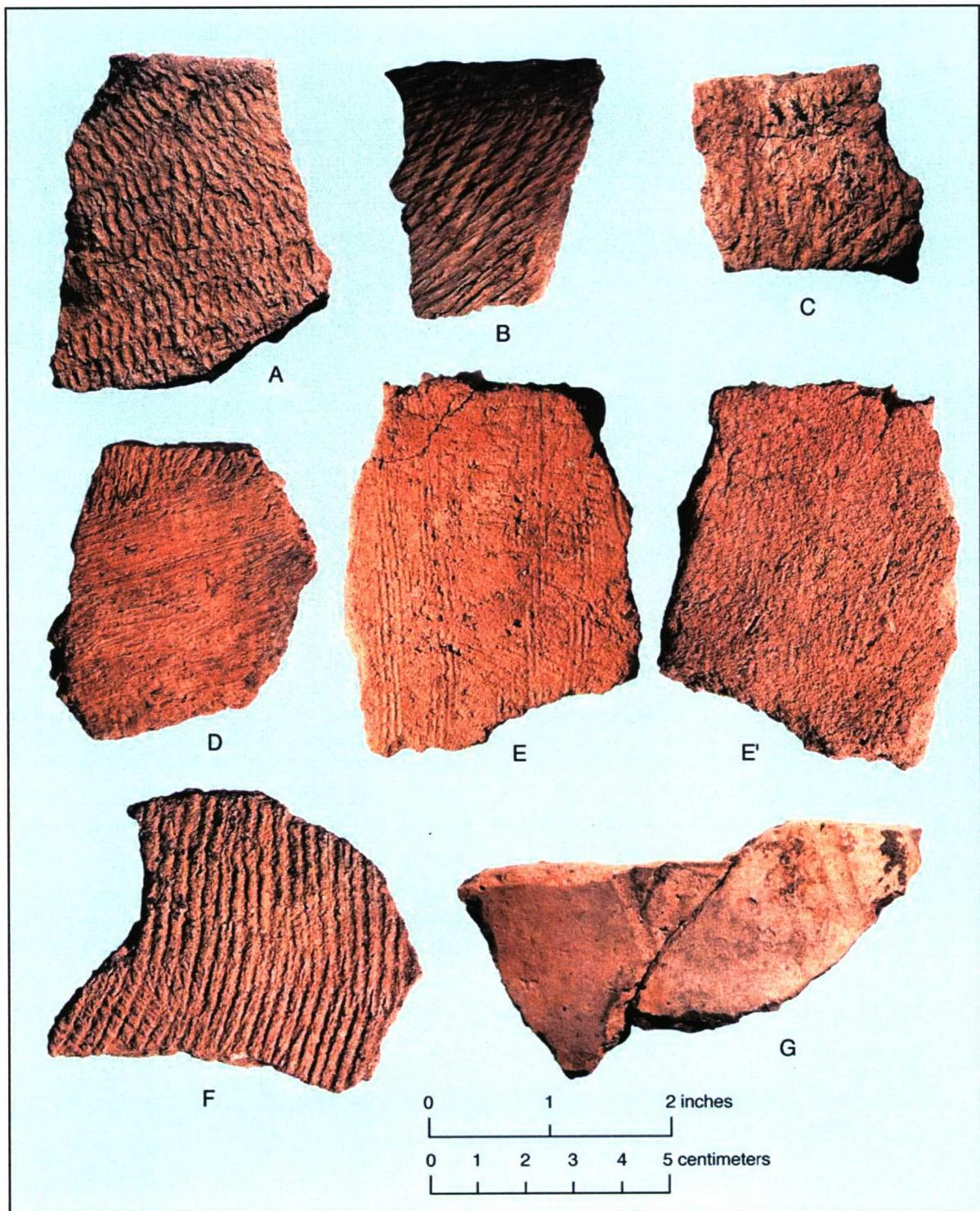
Figure 24  
Middle/Late Woodland Berkeley Pottery



A: Check Stamped; B: Linear Checked Stamped; C: Check Stamped, Triangular Checks;  
D: Simple Stamped, Thong wrapped paddle; E: Simple Stamped, carved paddle;  
F - G: Cordmarked; H - I: Fabric Impressed, rigid wrap

Cantley and Cable 2002a; Fig. 72

Figure 25  
Middle/Late Woodland Cape Fear Pottery



A: Fabric Impressed; B: Simple Stamped; C: Textile Marked; D: Cord Marked/Comb Scraped; E - E': Comb Scraped, Exterior and Interior Surface; F: Cordmarked; G: Incised

Mississippian tradition (Ferguson 1971). The initial phase of "Mississippianization", the Savannah phase, extended over a large geographical area including most of Georgia, southeastern Tennessee, western and south-central North Carolina and most of South Carolina. Throughout this area ceramic assemblages are linked together by a distinctive style of complicated stamped pottery generically described as Savannah Complicated Stamped. Design styles of this macro type tend to vary somewhat between localities. This, in addition to differences in other surface treatment types, has served as a basis for identifying a system of regional assemblage variants.

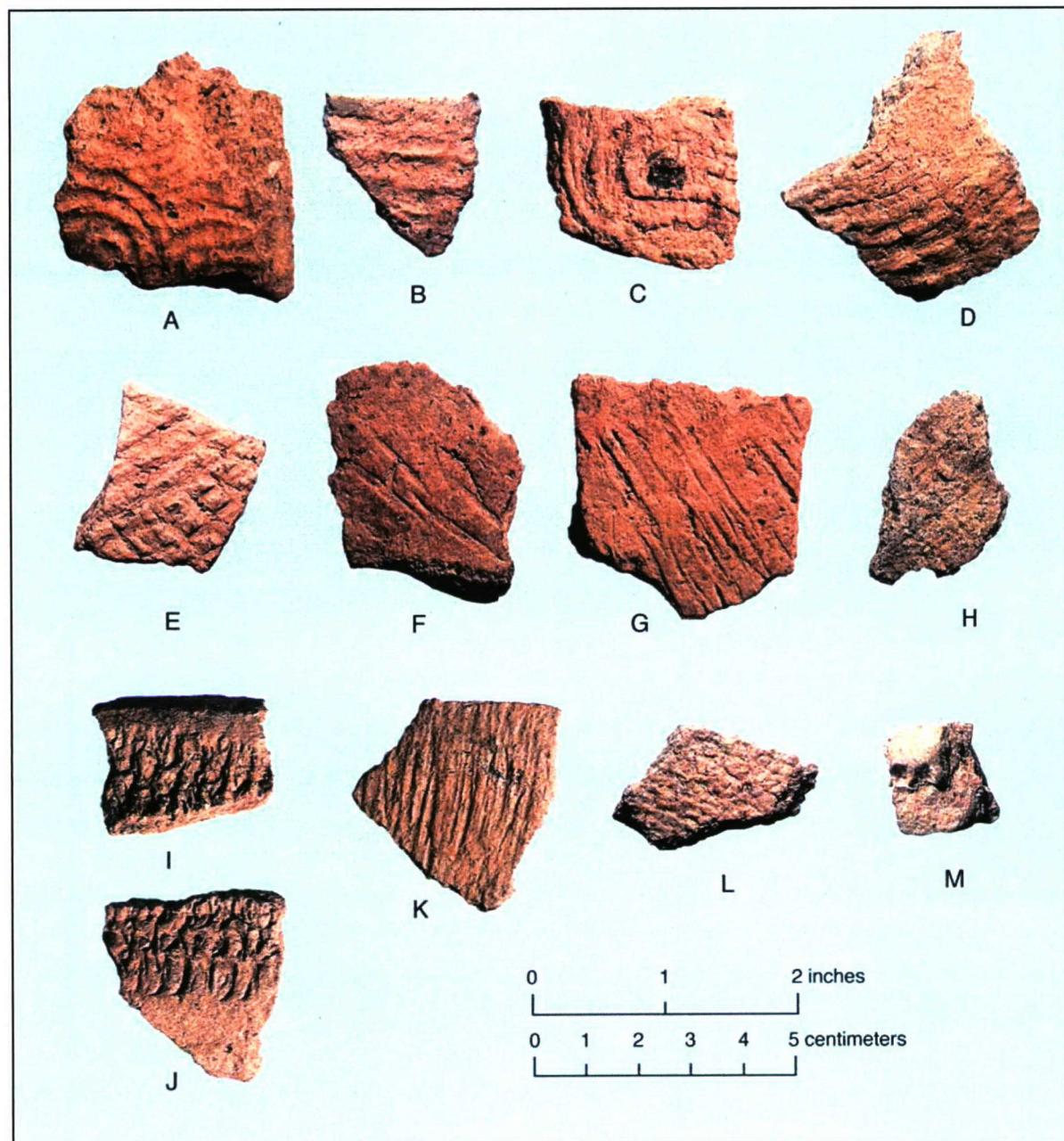
Central and northern South Carolina has never been adequately interpreted within this framework. On the central coast the associated culture or style has been referred to as Jeremy or Jeremy-Pee Dee to emphasize its similarities with the Pee Dee variant of south-central North Carolina (see Anderson 1982; Cable et al. 1991; Trinkley 1980, 1983). As is true of the Late Woodland ceramics of this region, however, it is probable that a closer fit will someday be made with the Mississippian assemblages of the Wateree (Mulberry Mound) and Upper Santee (Scotts Lake) valleys (see DePratter and Judge 1986).

The Wateree sequence is still in the initial stages of development, but it provides at least an outline of ceramic patterns in the central interior region of South Carolina during the Mississippian period. DePratter and Judge (1986) have organized the material from Mulberry Mound into five ceramic phases based on variation in rim decoration. The Belmont Neck and Adamson phases, the earliest, seem to contain ceramics more typical Savannah ceramic series, while the following Town Creek phase ceramics at Mulberry represents a transitional Savannah-Irene or -Lamar phase. The Mulberry phase correlates with early-to-middle Lamar period. Since the Mulberry Mound Site has been correlated fairly firmly with the DeSoto town of Cofitachique, we can assume that the Mulberry phase ceramics associate with the Protohistoric period.

Mississippian pottery found thus far at Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR have all been classified as Pee Dee (Figure 26). Two types of paste have been identified, but their significance is unknown. Paste referred to as Pee Dee 1 is a uniform, medium to coarse grit. The paste is very hard that the texture is gritty rather than sandy. The Pee Dee 2 variant is primarily distinguished by greater coarseness and abundance of sand particles. At 38SU141, 98 Pee Dee sherds were recovered. Of those, 71 had identifiable decorative motifs. Table 7 lists those motifs by variant. Of interest is the predominance of complicated stamping on the Pee Dee 2 type. Although important in Pee Dee 1, the proportion is much lower. Exclusive to Pee Dee 1 was brushed, cob impressed and simple stamped. While cordmarked and roughened was exclusive to Pee Dee 2. Additional work at Pee Dee phase sites should provide greater insight to the meaning of these data and may help better determine relationships to the Mulberry and Scotts Lake mound complexes.

The Mississippian adaptation throughout the Southeast was one of intensified agricultural production and wild resource exploitation that focused on major river floodplains. Smith (1978:483) identifies six major resource groups within this niche complex: (1) backwater fish species, (2) migratory waterfowl, (3) upland game including white-tailed deer, raccoon, and turkey, (4) nuts, fleshy fruits, and berries, (5) seed-producing weeds such as knotweed and goosefoot, both of which were most likely domesticated, and (6) domesticated Mexican imports including corn, beans, and squash. In optimal areas this subsistence economy supported relatively complex chiefdoms comprised of one or more paramount towns and numerous satellite communities of varying sizes and importance. In the larger systems these societies were ruled over by paramount chiefs, while smaller ones may have been managed by a collectivity of lesser chiefs and officials. Tribute was commonly taken from the villages in the system and invested in the chiefly elite and paramount towns.

Figure 26  
Pee Dee Pottery



A - D: Complicated Stamped; E: Simple Stamped; F - G: Brushed; H: Roughened; I - J: Cob Impressed; K: Cordmarked; L: Textile Wrapped; M: Indeterminant

Cantley and Cable 2002a; Fig. 74

The study area is situated in the upland hinterlands of the Mulberry and Scotts Lake chiefdoms and away from the optimal Mississippian niche. Consequently, it is not likely that ceremonial architecture or large Mississippian villages would be present. Instead we can expect to find only seasonal extraction camps or small farmstead settlements of the Mississippian period in these locations.

Table 7. Decorative Motifs for Pee Dee 1 and Pee Dee 2 sherds at 38SU141.

Motif	Pee Dee 1	Percentage	Pee Dee 2	Percentage
Brushed	7	24.2%	0	0.0%
Complicated Stamped	4	13.8%	22	52.4%
Cob Impressed	3	10.3%	0	0.0%
Cordmarked	0	0.0%	1	2.4%
Plain	14	48.3%	14	33.3%
Roughened	0	0.0%	5	11.9%
Simple Stamped	1	3.4%	0	0.0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>100.0%</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>100.0%</b>

Mississippian components have been identified at 19 sites that were considered significant (Table 8). At two sites where large scale excavations occurred (38SU45 and 38SU133), ceramic densities were relatively low and widely scattered, suggesting that these occupations probably represent ephemeral, single household residences. So far, only one Mississippian floor has been uncovered. In Block 4 at site 38SU133, a Pee Dee component was found in the same level as Early/Middle Woodland Deptford. Although there was no stratigraphic separation, there was vertical separation, which allows some conclusions to be drawn. Sherd density distributions indicated that the Deptford occupation was concentrated in the north, while the Pee Dee ceramics were concentrated in the south. Associated with the Pee Dee ceramic cluster in the south was a lithic concentration consisting of a variety of raw materials including rhyolite, black fine-grained orthoquartzite, orthoquartzite, and Manchester chert. The lithics associated with the northern Deptford cluster were primarily quartz (Cable and Cantley 1998: 340). Regardless, some of the Mississippian tools were made of quartz and it is possible that the Mississippian inhabitants scavenged quartz from the earlier occupation to make tools. The southern lithic cluster contains a large quantity of exotic raw material types including black orthoquartzite and rhyolite. Also, the debitage density is much lower than in the earlier northern cluster. This suggests a high degree of curation of tools made from the exotic materials (Cable and Cantley 1998: 344).

Another feature of Block 4 is a series of oxidized hearth areas. Two of these yielded radiocarbon dates suggesting either Late Woodland or early Mississippian age. It is believed that all of the hearths are likely associated with the Pee Dee component. That these oxidized areas are hearths is supported by the fact that bone fragments were concentrated around each one. Although the block excavation did not expose enough to reconstruct the exact structural characteristics of the households, it is believed that a multihousehold occupation is represented here. The same structural elements as found at the Savannah River Site (Sassaman 1993) and in the Conway Bypass project area (Cable et al. 1996) are present. They include debitage concentrations, tool clusters, and areas with partial vessels that are believed to represent hut locations. The Mississippian points tend to ring the hearths, which tends to confirm the inferred close spatial relationship between tools and hearths (Cable and Cantley 1998: 346).

The distinct contrast between raw material profiles for the Deptford and Pee Dee occupations indicate that there may have been significant differences in the regional organization of the two populations. The presence of exotic lithic materials in the Mississippian component suggests that these groups may have traveled a fairly long way to establish seasonal residences in the area and that they may have been based

at villages much closer to the Carolina Slate Belt – perhaps the mound complex in and around Camden. It is also possible that exotic materials were acquired through trade.

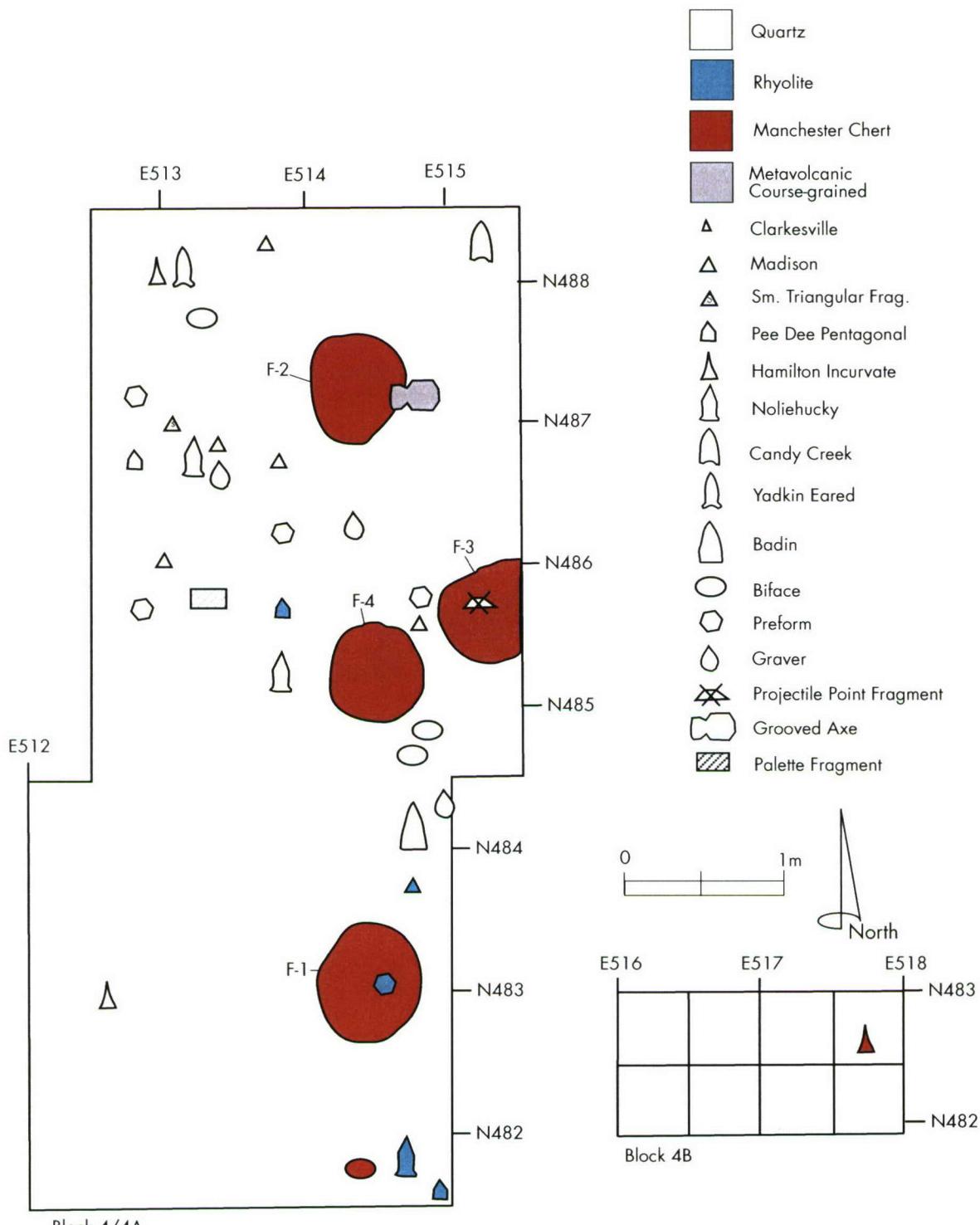
Table 8. Significant sites with Mississippian components at Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR.

Site #	Location	Phase	Source	Eligibility
38SU18	ridge overlooking tributary of Brunson Swamp	Testing	Cantley et al. 2002	Eligible
38SU45	Blackwater Pond west of Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cable and Cantley 1998	Mitigated
38SU51	NE corner Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU52	NE corner of Big Bay North (off rim)	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU56	West side of Big Bay North	Testing	Chapman et al. 2001	Eligible
38SU106	NW corner Big Bay South	Testing	Chapman et al. 2001	Eligible
38SU107	300m west of Big Bay South	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU133	Blackwater Pond west of Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cable and Cantley 1998	Mitigated
38SU141	N side of Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cantley and Cable 2002a	Mitigated
38SU145	Blackwater Pond west of Big Bay North	Data Recovery	Cable and Cantley 1998	Mitigated
38SU167	S side of Big Bay South	Testing	Chapman et al. 2001	Eligible
38SU182/208	NW corner Big Bay South	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU191	470m north of Big Bay North	Testing	Banguilan et al. 2004	Eligible
38SU203	swamp rim feeding west side of Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU205	S side of drain feeding west side of Big Bay North	Testing	Chapman et al. 2001	Eligible
38SU222	1,200 m N of Big Bay North	Testing	Banguilan et al. 2004	Eligible
38SU232	W side of Big Bay North	Testing	Cliff et al. 1999	Eligible
38SU294	sand ridge along S rim of Big Bay North	Testing	Botwick et al. 2004	Eligible
38SU299	Terrace overlooking Long Creek	Testing	Banguilan et al. 2005	Eligible

For the Deptford populations, the predominance of quartz suggests that they were exploiting local sources in the stream channels and that the region may have been intensively and perhaps more permanently inhabited at this time.

Cable and Cantley (1998: 350) suggest that the use of exotic materials over local lithic resources suggests the possibility that these semisedentary Mississippian groups may not have had an effective information network for mapping resources because the populations spent most of their time in sedentary villages where they practiced maize agriculture. Seasonal dispersal under this circumstance may have been a black box and could have created a situation in which a curated technology was selected over an expedient one that took advantage of local lithic materials. This would have provided the ability to immediately move their camps without the need to retool. If this logistical problem was being experienced, then it could be expected that we will find a wide range of settlements for these periods in the ecotones, some indicating relatively long seasonal occupation and others reflecting only very brief stays.

Figure 27  
Location of Mississippian hearth features relative to  
stone tool distributions in Block 4 complex, site 38SU133



Cantley and Cable 2002a; Fig. 124

## RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ADDITIONAL PREHISTORIC RESEARCH

Data recoveries by Cable and Cantley (1998) and Cantley and Cable (2002a) have focused on site structural analysis by examining single household units in block excavations. While examining these units, they were able to reconstruct prehistoric floors using a lithic raw material axiom, with extreme clarity. Raw material profiles at these sites supply important information on the scale of the settlement systems under study. Regardless, of these reconstructions, little is known about Paleoindian, Woodland and Mississippian floors and additional, cumulative data is needed for these as well as Archaic Period floors.

Some types of data have not been sufficiently collected to contribute to building a picture of prehistoric occupation in the region. First, subsistence data have been collected as soil columns or as macro-finds in the screen. Cantley and Cable (2002a: 342) suggest that future work should attempt to collect soil samples in horizontal space at locations that can be correlated with occupational floors. In other words, instead of using columns from a specific random corner of a unit excavation, samples should be taken from a broader area within levels known to contain the living surface of a specific occupation. This would increase the chances of collecting items other than wood charcoal and also provide a basis for identifying activity areas. Faunal bone has been used to identify hearthing areas, but this association has been done rather haphazardly. In order to demonstrate that these hearthing areas exist by showing that they are different from other areas of the floor, the entire horizontal extent of the floor requires sampling. This may also allow the identification of activity areas previously unrecognized on these floors (Cantley and Cable 2002a: 342).

As previously mentioned, the analysis of prehistoric ceramics in the Shaw AFB/Poinsett ECR area has revealed two interesting facts that have long ranging implications for local ceramic sequences in the South Carolina coastal plain. The first is that the Refuge series has a high incidence of sherd and/or grog tempering. The second, which is probably linked to the above, is the tendency for ceramic type proportions of Berkeley and Wilmington series ceramics to vary positively with Deptford series type proportions on a site by site basis. This suggests that the Middle Woodland series are to a great extent, contemporaneous rather than sequentially related. In sum, current data makes it difficult to pigeon-hole ceramic types to a particular subperiod and it is clear that the ceramic sequence needs further evaluation and updating.

Data recovery studies to date have primarily focused on site structure. More information is needed on community patterns. It is possible that the basic units identified as occupational floors represent the entire outputs from contemporaneous events. However, it is possible that there is a larger level of organization that has yet to be discovered wherein groups of these floors were linked in a band-level occupation of the site. Cantley and Cable (2002a: 342) suggest that once possible contemporaneous floors have been identified, which are clustered, an arrangement of closely located block excavations could be placed to target these floors. Areas between these excavations could be examined with closely spaced shovel tests to link the floors and provide a basis for evaluating extramural space within the proposed community. Since we now know more about the diversity of settlement types and floors that exist within the region, it would be appropriate to focus only on the more contemporaneous grouping for excavations.

As a part of these suggestions for future research, there is the need to collect additional dates in order to refine our understanding of the pottery and projectile point sequence, and therefore, better understand settlement patterns, population density, and technological change in the area throughout time. While charcoal for radiocarbon dating is not often present, other dating methods could be useful. Methods such as Optically Stimulated Luminescence dating (OSL) can provide dates on soil sediment layers and artifacts, which can often more tightly date archaeological contexts and artifacts.

## IV. HISTORY AND HISTORICAL ARCHAEOLOGY

Previous work at Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR has identified 56 historic sites (Kreisa et al. 1996). The majority of these sites were late nineteenth to early twentieth century tenant and owner farmsteads. After the Civil War, plantations were split up and by 1880 the area was predominated by small farms, so the preponderance of late sites is not unexpected. Kreisa et al. 1996 concluded simply that the vast majority were located adjacent to roads, which is a typical pattern found throughout South Carolina.

To date, there have been no data recoveries performed at any historic sites located on Shaw AFB or Poinsett ECR and very little is known archaeologically of the historic occupations. Of the 56 sites, three have been determined eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. They consist of the Singleton/Manning Plantation (38SU149/150), the Manchester Depot (38SU60), and the Robert Black Farmstead (38SU155). All date to the nineteenth and twentieth century, but a review the historical development of the area helps to understand how they came about and their significance to local history. Previous research on the specific history of these properties is also presented here.

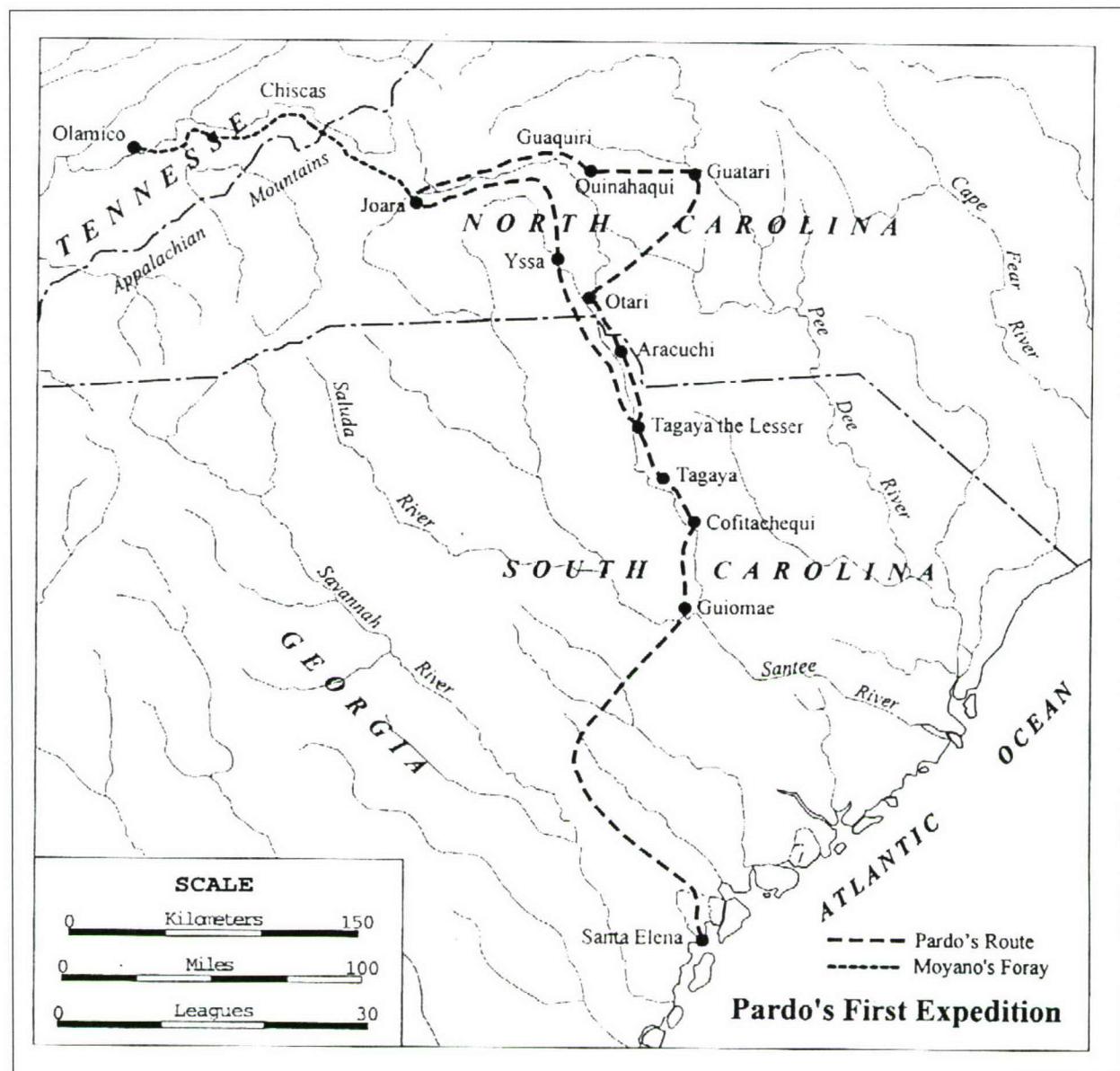
### EXPLORATION AND ETHNOHISTORY (1500S – EARLY 1700S)

The Spanish were the first Europeans to explore what is now the southeastern United States. After their success in the Caribbean and the phenomenal conquest of Mexico, Spanish authorities and adventurers turned their attention northward, to the area Ponce de Leon identified as "La Florida." By the early 1500s, the Atlantic and Gulf seacoasts were targets for a number of expeditions and abortive colonies. One of the first of these was headed by Luis Vasquez de Aylon, who established a short-lived colony in the vicinity of the Cape Fear or Winyah Bay in 1526 (Morrison 1971:332-334; Gregorie 1954:5).

The first Spaniard to explore the interior of this vast area was Hernando de Soto, who landed in Tampa Bay with 600 soldiers in May of 1539. Over the next three years, de Soto journeyed through what is now the American Southeast, including much of South Carolina. De Soto's chronicler recorded that one of the major stops in 1540 was the town of Cofitachequi. It now appears that the archeological site of Mulberry Mound (38KE12), near Camden, was the location of this town. This being the case, de Soto traveled to Cofitachequi by paralleling the Wateree River, adjacent to the Poinsett ECR (Figure 28).

After de Soto, only the threat of rival European colonization brought the Spanish back to Florida. In the early 1560s, French colonies were established on Parris Island and at the mouth of the St. Johns River (Fort Caroline). The French settlement on Parris Island was soon abandoned, but the Spanish returned in force to both places to ensure their hold on the region. In 1565, Pedro Menendez de Aviles captured Fort Caroline and established a permanent Spanish presence at St. Augustine. The following year, Aviles also established a colony at Parris Island, called Santa Elena. Aviles left the exploration of this new area to Captain Juan Pardo, who explored the interior of what are now the Carolinas between 1566 and 1568 (Hudson 1990).

Figure 28  
Pardo's First Expedition



During this period, Pardo traveled through the general project area, and was the first Spaniard after de Soto to visit Cofitachequi. Pardo left at least five small forts along his main route into the interior, including one at Cofitachequi, identified as Fort Santo Tomas. Cofitachequi itself was christened "Ciudad de Toledo" (Hudson 1990:146-152). Despite all of these achievements, nothing permanent came of Pardo's work. The forts in the interior were soon abandoned, and Santa Elena itself was abandoned in 1587 (Kreisa et al. 1996:29).

The only Spanish colony along the coast that proved successful was St. Augustine, and it soon became a buffer between Spanish settlements in the Caribbean and English settlements established further north. The first Europeans to settle permanently in South Carolina would not be Spanish, but English, establishing a toehold on the Atlantic seaboard in the early 1600s.

In the 1660s, Charles II of England, recently placed on the throne after the Cromwell interregnum, awarded the territory of Carolina to six of his most loyal supporters. Known as the Lords Proprietors, this group formed the first government for the Carolina colony in the late 1600s and early 1700s. It was during this period, that Charles Towne, later Charleston, was established on the banks of the Cooper River. By the 1680s, Carolina was divided into counties, named for the Lords Proprietors and established as the basis for local administration. The first three counties in what is now South Carolina were Berkeley, around Charleston; Craven, north of Charleston; and Colleton, south of Charleston (Stauffer 1994:1). During this time and well into the 1700s, settlement hugged the seacoast and was centered around Charleston.

Established by planters from Barbados and augmented by English settlers and Huguenot emigres, Charleston became home to an aristocratic, slave-owning society, much like what had already been established on the rich sugarcane islands of the Caribbean. While sugarcane did not thrive in Carolina colony, rice and indigo did, and soon African slaves were imported in considerable numbers to work the fields. Contact was also maintained with Indian groups in the interior, who supplied the colony with game and other foodstuffs in return for trade goods and trinkets.

By the time John Lawson made his journey through the backcountry of South Carolina in 1701, there were at least four Indian groups in what is now central South Carolina. The Wateree were located within what is now Sumter County; to the west, were the Congaree; to the south, the Santee; to the north, the Catawba (Brown et al. 1983:20). All four had formerly been part of the Cofitachequi political system that was in sharp decline even in Pardo's day. By the early 1700s, Cofitachequi was gone (Hudson 1990:181).

In the vacuum created by Cofitachequi's demise, all four groups had migrated southward in a series of moves probably assisted by pressure from the new English settlements in Virginia and North Carolina. The Wateree, known as "Guatari" in Pardo's day, had moved into the area around present-day Shaw AFB and Poinsett Weapons Range from the upper Pee Dee River in North Carolina. The Wateree probably spoke Catawban. The Santee had also moved south, from the upper Wateree and middle Pee Dee basins. Pardo probably knew them as "Sarati." The Congarees, who did not speak Catawban, are believed to have been the descendants of the Muscogean population of Cofitachequi itself (Hudson 1990:185-188). By the time of the Charleston colony, these groups were united in a rather loose political association known as the Esaw Confederation (Brown et al. 1983:20).

The Esaw Confederation was soon put to use. In 1715, the Waterees and the Santees joined other Indian groups throughout the South Carolina coastal plain and piedmont to fight the settlers in Charleston, who were perceived as both rapacious and land-hungry. This brought on the Yamassee War (1715-1716),

which eventually broke the power of the inland Indian groups, and paved the way for European settlement in the interior. With the war's disastrous outcome, remnants of both Santees and Waterees moved upstream to merge with the Catawba. The area around present-day Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR was effectively depopulated, even though the Catawba used the area as hunting grounds for years afterwards (Gregorie 1954:7-8).

## COLONIAL SETTLEMENT (1730S-1775)

The Yamassee War had underlined the weakness of proprietary rule, and in the years that followed, the British government bought out the interests of the Lords Proprietors and their heirs. By 1729, South Carolina was finally established as a royal colony, with a colonial assembly and a governor appointed by the Crown. Steps were also taken to secure the frontier, in order to prevent any repeat of the Yamassee War. In the early 1730s, ten settlements or "townships" were established in an arc around Charleston, both to protect the core of the royal colony and spur inland settlement.

Two of these ten townships were situated in the area between the Wateree-Santee and Lynches River, one above and the other below what is now Sumter County: Williamsburg Township, established roughly where Williamsburg County is today, and Fredericksburg Township, established in what is now Kershaw County (Gregorie 1954:8). The authorities made special efforts to import immigrants for the townships, and each soon acquired its own ethnic characteristics. Williamsburg Township was largely settled by Scots-Irish brought over directly from North Britain. Fredericksburg remained largely English (South Carolina History Series 1968).

By the 1740s, the first European or Euro-American settlers moved into what is now Sumter County from the downstream settlements. The first to arrive were the so-called "cattle pen" or "cow pen" settlers, who ran cattle as a livelihood. A ubiquitous feature of the early Euro-American frontier, cattle pen settlers moved into the area around present-day Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR after they were forced out of Williamsburg Township in the 1740s (Gregorie 1954:9). They were soon followed by others who farmed and established land claims. The Pudding Swamp area, approximately 30 miles east of what is now Shaw AFB, was settled by the Scots-Irish overflow from the Williamsburg Township (Revill 1968:23). The banks of the Pocotaligo River were settled by a general overflow from the coastal settlements further south (Revill 1968:26).

In 1739, the lieutenant governor reserved a strip of land 10 miles wide on the east side of the Wateree and Santee for Scots settlement, which included what is now Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR. Even though no Scots claimed this gift, it was long known as the North Britain Tract, and is believed to have remained vacant until at least the late 1740s (Gregorie 1954:12).

One of the first settlers into the North Britain Tract was Sherwood James, who ran a tavern near what is now Wedgefield. Others soon laid claim to tracts consisting of 300, 400, and even 700 acres (Revill 1968:16-18). Another early settler was Matthew Singleton, who established a place on or near Shank's Creek, a small Wateree tributary located immediately west of what is now Poinsett ECR. According to a 1753 petition, Singleton laid claim to 300 acres in the vicinity of the current Poinsett State Park, about one mile west of the range (Brown et al. 1983:33; Revill 1968:16-17). This laid the foundation for Singleton's Melrose Plantation, one of the earliest in the area. In the 1760s, Singleton is believed to have constructed sawmills on Shank's Creek and others, to plane the wood needed to build a frame house, a rare undertaking on the frontier (Gregorie 1954:14,17).

The founding of the townships and the settlement of adjacent lands quickly led to the development of local roads. The earliest and most important of these was officially established in 1753. Originally known as the Catawba Path, it was later identified by a number of different names (Broad Road, Great Road, Charleston Road) before it finally became commonly known as the King's Highway. In the project area, the King's Highway was situated along the crest of the Sandhills between the tributaries of the Wateree and the Pocotaligo. Today, it more or less conforms to S.C. Highway 261, which forms the western boundary of the Poinsett ECR (Gregorie 1954:8-9,119).

The King's Highway connected the Fredericksburg Township and Camden, its principal community, with Kingstree, the main town of the Williamsburg Township. Even more important, its south fork provided a link between Camden and Charleston by way of a Santee River crossing commonly known as Nelson's Ferry, now buried by Lake Marion (Gregorie 1954:8; Nicholes 1975:37). Both the townships and the King's Highway are depicted in maps from the late colonial period (Figure 26).

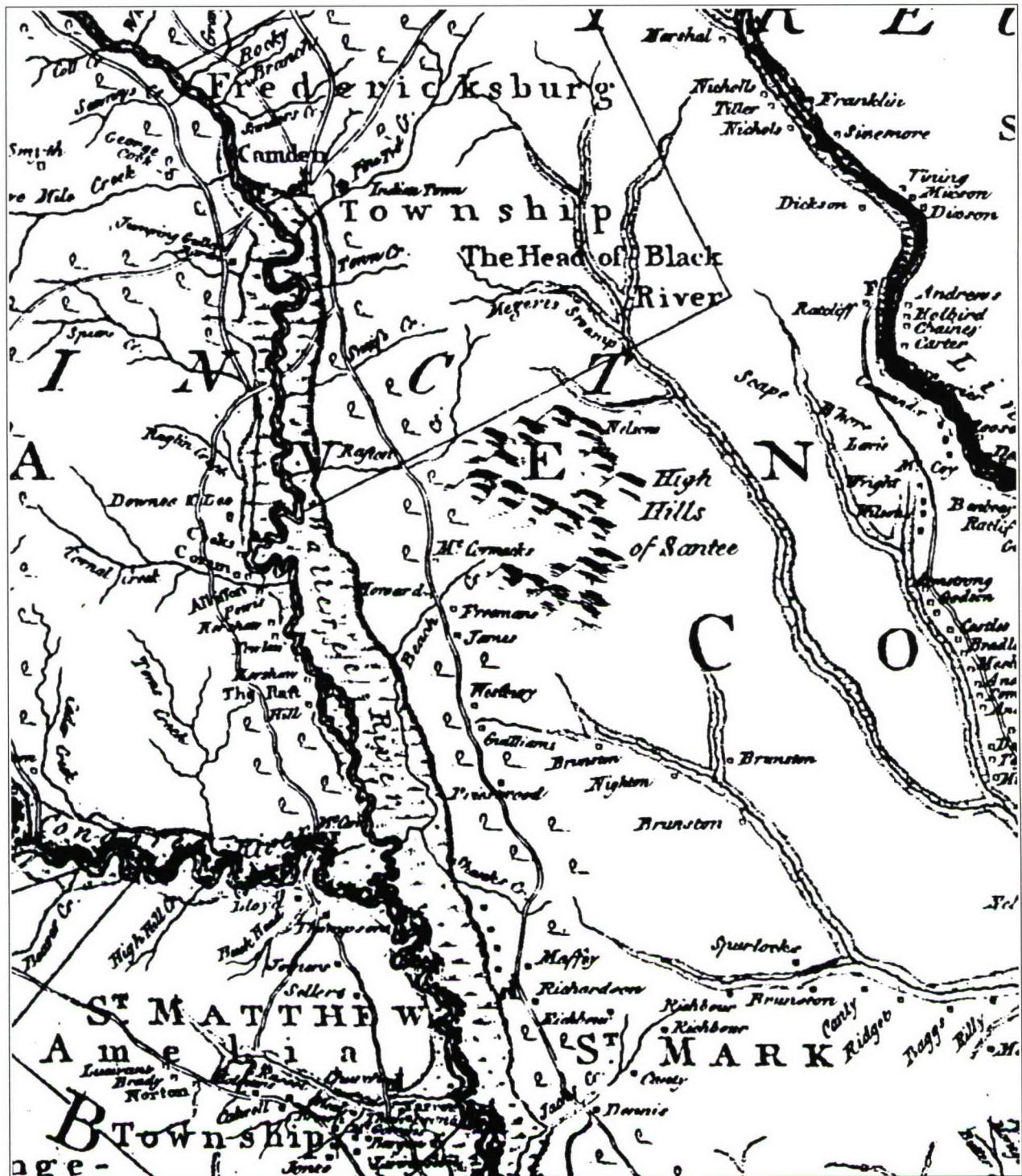
By the mid-1700s, local settlement had clearly outgrown the original townships of the 1730s. The original county designations were even more antiquated. During this period, counties in South Carolina were basically used to identify the location of property: most legal proceedings still took place in Charleston. Far more important than counties were the parishes of the Anglican Church, which also doubled as election districts (Stauffer 1994:1). In 1757, the project area, together with everything between the Wateree-Santee and the Lynches rivers, was designated St. Mark's Parish (Gregorie 1954:22-24; South Carolina History Series 1968).

The interior of the colony began to fill with another influx of settlers. Unlike earlier immigrants who entered the colony by sea, these settlers traveled overland from the north. Descendents of the first Scots-Irish immigrants to the ridge and valley region of Pennsylvania, these settlers moved south along the Appalachian ridges to stake out new lands in Virginia and the Carolinas. This became known as the Great Overland Migration, and it burst upon the piedmont of South Carolina in the 1750s and 1760s (Gregorie 1954:14-15). Within a remarkably short time, the colony was virtually settled, with the exception of the Appalachian foothills, still claimed by the Cherokee.

The Great Overland Migration established the dual nature of Euro-American settlement in the southern colonies, from Virginia to Georgia. The coastal plains remained the stronghold of the original English settlers (leavened in South Carolina by French Huguenots). As a rule, they were planters who relied on slave labor, and their religion was High Church Anglican. Alternatively, the piedmont and mountain areas became associated with the Scots-Irish, leavened in their case by Pennsylvania Germans. They were small farmers, as were most people on the frontier, and their religion, at least initially, was Low Church Presbyterian (Fischer 1989). Most people in the project area, like others on the coastal plain, belonged to the first group, but proximity to the piedmont led to considerable mixing.

Conflict between these two groups was held in check during the 1750s and early 1760s by the French and Indian War. In the southern colonies, the French fought this war with Indian proxies, and in South Carolina, the war was often referred to as the Cherokee War (Gregorie 1954:32). After the war's conclusion in 1763, the frontier was again troubled, not by Indians but by lawless brigands returning from the war. The Scots-Irish settlers resented the indifference of the Charleston authorities, who were slow to create any sort of legal or administrative structure for the backcountry. This led to the rise of the "Regulators," who pushed for reform and greater autonomy for the new inland settlements (Gregorie 1954:27-29).

Figure 29  
The 1773 Cook Map Showing High Hills of the Santee, King's Highway,  
and Fredricksburg Township



In 1769, at the insistence of the Regulators, the South Carolina General Assembly established seven judicial districts to handle legal cases throughout the colony. The project area came under the jurisdiction of the Camden District, which lay between the Lynches River to the east, and the Santee-Congaree-Broad River to the west (Stauffer 1994:2,8). Of even greater significance to the project area was the use of the High Hills of the Santee as a summer retreat for wealthy planters from the Low Country (Gregorie 1954:31). This trend, which became apparent in the 1770s, would continue until at least the Civil War. It was only interrupted by the American Revolution.

## REVOLUTIONARY WAR (1775-1783)

The American Revolutionary War had its beginnings in the monstrous debt incurred by Britain during the Seven Years War (or French and Indian War, as it was known in America). Starting with the Stamp Act in 1763, various laws were passed by Parliament that taxed the American colonists without their consent. In 12 years' time, this led from bad feelings to open war, which began with the battles of Lexington and Concord in April of 1775. The colonies quickly established their own "Continental Congress," and declared their independence from Great Britain the following year. All that remained was to keep that independence in the face of British opposition.

The early years of the war were largely fought in the northern colonies. One of the major exceptions was the first British naval attack on Charleston, made in the summer of 1776. The British attack was beaten off at Fort Moultrie, which was constructed of palmetto, and inspired the palmetto tree emblem that would later appear on the South Carolina state flag. In the wake of this British defeat, the war in South Carolina degenerated into a sort of civil war between local Whigs (Patriots) and Tories (Loyalists), with the Patriots coming out on top (Gregorie 1954:40-41).

This situation was reversed in 1779 and 1780, when the new British commander, Lord Cornwallis, decided on a southern campaign. Taking Savannah in December of 1778, he gained complete control of the Georgia colony well before the end of 1779. It was South Carolina's turn the following year. Charleston fell to a British siege in May of 1780, and Cornwallis's troops quickly moved inland to consolidate their position and arrest prominent Patriots. Among those singled out was Thomas Sumter, whose home in what is now Clarendon County was raided at the end of May 1780. Sumter immediately became a hunted partisan, as did Francis Marion (Gregorie 1954:43-44).

In addition to Charleston and Georgetown on the coast, Camden, north of the Shaw AFB/Poinsett ECR area, became a British stronghold and bastion of royal rule in the backcountry. The town was garrisoned by 1,000 regulars and a Loyalist militia, all commanded by Lt. Col. Lord Francis Rawdon. The Charleston-Camden Road, the King's Highway, became the main artery between the Camden garrison and their supply base on the coast (Ramsey and Green 1922:26).

Immediately, the Continental Congress sent General Horatio Gates south to command Continental forces there and repulse the British. Gates attempted this at the battle of Camden in August of 1780, and virtually wrecked his army (Symonds 1986:87). Three days later, Sumter was surprised at Fishing Creek and put to flight by Lt. Col. Banastre Tarleton, Cornwallis's flamboyant cavalry commander. The British had the upper hand until October of 1780, when the Patriot victory at Kings Mountain, on the North Carolina border, checked British success in the backcountry. For the next seven months, the war in South Carolina was conducted in the countryside, with guerilla skirmishing between partisan bands and British cavalry (Gregorie 1954:46-47).

In the absence of any Continental commanders, the partisan war was largely the responsibility of two men, "Swamp Fox" Francis Marion and Thomas Sumter, the "Gamecock of the Revolution." Both had a wide range of operations, and both were familiar with the King's Highway, the main overland artery of British communications in South Carolina. Sumter, in particular, is of interest here, if only because he later chose to live along the King's Highway after the war, in the High Hills of the Santee.

Thomas Sumter was born in 1734, near Charlottesville, Virginia. Serving as a sergeant in the French and Indian War, he went to what is now northeast Tennessee in 1761 to help establish a fort to guard settlers against the Cherokee. While on this duty, he served as interpreter for a peace party. Making rounds of the Cherokee settlements, Sumter befriended one of the major town chiefs, known in English as "Judd's Friend." The peace party, together with Judd's Friend, traveled back to Williamsburg, at which point the Cherokee chief decided to visit King George III in England. Eager to preserve peace with the Cherokee in this last phase of the war with France, British authorities arranged for the Cherokee chief to make the trip to London, where he did indeed have an audience with the king. Sumter was selected to accompany the chief, and return him safely. Months later, Judd's Friend and Sumter returned by way of Charleston, and Sumter liked the Low Country so much that he made his home in South Carolina after the war (Gregorie 1954:32-35; Revill 1968:6-7).

Settling in the Taw Caw Creek area in what is now Clarendon County, Sumter married Mary Jameson in 1767 and began a family (Gregorie 1954:35; Revill 1968:26). Soon a prominent citizen in his new community, Sumter took the Patriot side in the Revolution, which led to his commanding an irregular partisan group when the British returned in force in 1780.

Even though Sumter had a number of encounters during the period of British occupation, most of the ones that occurred along the King's Highway in the vicinity of Poinsett ECR actually involved Francis Marion. Around November 11, 1780, Tarleton and Marion had a skirmish south of the Shaw AFB/Poinsett ECR area along the Camden-Charleston Road. Returning to Camden, Tarleton met with local Loyalists at Singleton's Mill, on Shank's Creek, where they set up a warning system to ensure troop protection along the King's Highway (Gregorie 1954:47-48).

Three months later, in February of 1781, a British force, commanded by a Major McLereth, was on the march from Nelson's Ferry to Camden when they were attacked by the Swamp Fox near Halfway Swamp. Recovering from the attack, McLereth assembled his troops on one side of the highway, and squared off against Marion on the other side. After a few exchanges, McLereth abandoned his position and retreated north, toward Singleton's Mill, 10 miles away. Marion detailed 100 of his men, commanded by Col. Hugh Horry, to head off the British retreat by seizing Singleton's Mill ahead of the British. The Patriot force won the race, only to yield the field to the Singleton family, all of whom had smallpox. The British escaped toward Camden (Gregorie 1954:49-50).

Meanwhile, since 1781, Cornwallis had been trying to quell the rebellion in North Carolina. He won a tactical victory over General Nathanael Greene's Continental army at Guilford Court House on March 15, 1781, but was forced to retreat towards Wilmington for lack of supplies and Loyalist support.

While Cornwallis retreated eastward, Greene advanced against the occupation force remaining in South Carolina. In April of 1781, he attacked Lord Rawdon and the British garrison of Camden in the battle of Hobkirk's Hill. Although Greene was defeated, the British position in Camden soon became untenable, especially after Francis Marion seized Fort Watson on the Santee River, threatening British control of the

King's Highway (Gregorie 1954:53; Symonds 1986:95). Lord Rawdon evacuated Camden and led his forces down the highway toward Charleston in May, camping overnight at Singleton's Mill (Gregorie 1954:53).

Greene and his Continentals followed the British part way down the highway, resting through the summer in the High Hills of the Santee. In September, he resumed the march south toward Charleston, winning a costly victory at Eutaw Springs in September of 1781. The British pulled back to the protection of Charleston, while Greene returned to the High Hills to regroup. The Continentals were still camped there, in late October, when word came of Cornwallis's surrender at Yorktown. Both sides knew this meant the end of the war, even though the British garrison did not leave Charleston until December of 1782 (Gregorie 1954:54).

## EARLY STATEHOOD (1783-1820S)

During the colonial era, the staples of the South Carolina economy were rice and indigo. Rice was generally limited to the tidewater; the cash crop of the interior, including the area around present-day Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR, was indigo. One of the main reasons for establishing the first roads was to facilitate the movement of the indigo harvest to Charleston.

After the Revolution, rice continued to prosper, but the market for indigo collapsed with the cessation of British subsidies. Indigo cultivation largely died out in the years after the war (Gregorie 1954:56). While rice made some expansion into the river bottoms of what is now Sumter County, the new crop of preference was cotton, introduced into the area in the 1780s (Nicholes 1975:38; Burke et al. 1943:13).

Cotton cultivation possessed a number of advantages over both rice and indigo. It was less labor-intensive, so that even poor whites without slaves could invest in the crop. It was also more profitable (Gregorie 1954:109-110). This profitability was greatly increased in the years after 1793, when Eli Whitney's cotton gin simplified the process of removing seeds.

The unfortunate side effect of cotton expansion was the corresponding growth of slavery. As cotton became more profitable, and as poor whites purchased slaves and became planters, the slave population burgeoned. Between 1803 and 1808, when federal law finally curtailed the traffic, some 40,000 African slaves were imported into South Carolina alone. Soon slaves outnumbered free men in most areas of the state, giving rise to fears of slave insurrections (Gregorie 1954:133). None of these fears, however, put a brake on the gentrification process. Cotton became king, plantations grew large, even in the piedmont, and the state became deeply bifurcated between a sizable planter class with power and privilege, and an even larger slave population bereft of rights.

Nowhere in South Carolina was this transition better represented than in Sumter County, which went from frontier hard scrabble to opulent plantation in just one or two generations. This was certainly the case in the High Hills area along the King's Highway, where planters from the Low Country established summer homes to escape malaria and yellow fever on the coast. This process was only intensified when Thomas Sumter founded Stateburg immediately after the Revolutionary War.

As a Patriot partisan during the Revolution, Thomas Sumter gained a post-war eminence in South Carolina that few military or civilian leaders could match. Known as General Sumter, or simply "the General," he

was a much loved and respected figure throughout the state. When Sumter decided to make his home the High Hills of the Santee after the war, he easily had the clout to create a new town.

General Sumter and friends laid out their new community in 1783. Located on the King's Highway, it was established in hopes of becoming the new state capital, soon to be moved inland from Charleston. Because of its location near the geographic center of the state, it was named "Stateburg," although it was occasionally rendered Stateburgh, Statesburg, or even Statesborough (Gregorie 1954:62; Revill 1968:28; Ramsey and Green 1922:7). Despite Sumter's urgings, however, the new state capital bypassed Stateburg in favor of Columbia, a site on the Congaree River, 30 miles to the west.

Even though Stateburg failed to become state capital, it was made an administrative center, at least for a few years. In 1785, in the wake of the Revolutionary War, South Carolina reorganized its system of districts. Camden District was divided into seven counties, one of which was Claremont County, which covered all of what is now Sumter County (Stauffer 1994:2-3). Stateburg became the seat of Claremont County (Revill 1968:36). Even this honor was relatively short-lived: between 1798 and 1800, the state again reorganized local governments, turning counties into new districts (the large districts created in 1769 were abolished). Most individual counties were simply named districts, but reforms were more complicated in the Shaw AFB/Poinsett ECR area. There, three previous counties – Claremont, Clarendon, and Salem – were combined to form a new district, named for Thomas Sumter (Stauffer 1994:3-4,13,22). To administer Sumter District, a new seat of government was established 10 miles east of Stateburg, and given the name Sumterville (Revill 1968:37). In time, the name was shortened to Sumter.

Even though Stateburg did not remain an administrative center, it prospered nonetheless as a haven from summer fevers, and soon became known as a resort area for wealthy planters (Nicholes 1975:37). After helping to lay out the new community in 1783, Thomas Sumter moved to Stateburg the following year (Gregorie 1954:62). In the years that followed, Sumter served in both the U.S. House of Representatives and in the Senate. After retiring from public service in 1810, he spent the rest of his long life in Stateburg, dying on June 1, 1832, just shy of his 98th birthday.

Other Revolutionary War soldiers made Stateburg their home. Among these was John Mayrant, who served with John Paul Jones on the "Bonhomme Richard" (Revill 1968:35). Wealthy planters were also drawn to the community, setting up large homes that were soon known by name: White House, Home House, The Ruins, Marden, and Acton, among others. San Souci, another well-known residence, was the summer home of Edward Rutledge, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence (Nicholes 1975:43-46).

Some of the more interesting inhabitants of the Stateburg area were the descendants of Joseph Benenhaley as well as a second man known only as "Scott," both of whom had served Thomas Sumter during the Revolutionary War, as a scout and bugler, respectively. According to one source, Joseph Benenhaley's original name was Yusef Ben Ali (Brown et al. 1983:33; Nicholes 1975:136-138), and both men are believed to have come from Morocco or some other part of North Africa. Both had either been pirates or had been captured by pirates, and both had dark complexions.

According to a story told by Sumter's great-grandson, it was once called into question whether Benenhaley and Scott were "white enough" to serve on a jury. General Sumter was called upon to resolve the matter. Striding into the courtroom, Sumter placed his pistol on the front table and then shook hands with both men.

That was considered sufficient proof, and both Benenhaley and Scott were impaneled without further question (Sumter 1949:70).

Sumter gave land to Benenhaley and Scott on the east side of Stateburg, and this area soon became home for their families and descendants. Despite their dark-complexion, they were considered "white," and were known locally as "Turks." In the early days, they shared a church and school with the local whites, but later, as their numbers grew, they established their own facilities. Successful at maintaining a separate identity, the Turks became known locally for their sober diligence (Sumter 1949:70-71). At least seven served the Confederacy during the Civil War (Gregorie 1954:469).

Stateburg was not the only settlement to thrive along the King's Highway. Another was Manchester, just eight miles to the south. Located in what is now the northwest margin of the Poinsett ECR, Manchester is believed to have started as a small settlement in the late 1700s (Moulton 1970; Nicholes 1975:36-37). From Manchester, cotton could reach boats on the Wateree River, by way of Beech Creek and Shank's Creek, and the community grew as a result. This development greatly favored the Singleton family, which was already well established in the area (Gregorie 1954:68). In fact, Manchester was located on Matthew Singleton's plantation, "Melrose," which encompassed some 2,850 acres at its height. After Matthew's death, his heirs began selling lots for a formal town site, beginning around 1802-1803 (Revill 1968:28). By 1806, the community had a tavern (Gregorie 1954:122-123), and had already begun to attract wealthy planters, just as Stateburg had done. Soon this area too was known for its plantations and grand houses, the grandest of which, at least in the early 1800s, was the home of Col. Richard Singleton (1776-1852), Matthew's grandson (Lauren Decker, personal communication, 1996).

Edwin Scott spent time as a boy in Manchester and has provided recollections about the town between the years 1806 and 1811. He notes that other than residences, there was a tavern kept by his father, a shoe shop, tailor shop, blacksmith shop, a schoolhouse and two or three stores. As will be mentioned in the discussion of the Singleton/Manning Plantation, Catawba Indians were known to visit every winter to sell their wares. Scott mentions "the occasional, and always welcome, advent of a Yankee peddler, driving a good horse in a covered wagon, supplied families with tin ware and other light goods". Many years later he was delayed at the depot for several hours on his way to visit friends in Salem. He walked up to the old village and found only two houses remaining: one formerly occupied by his father and the other the old schoolhouse (Scott 1884: 12-13).

Located on the King's Highway, the Richard Singleton place reached its apex around 1830. At that time, the house was set back from the road in a 50-acre park with formal gardens, all shielded from the road by rose hedges. Trees radiated out from the main house in rows, like the spokes of a wheel. A racetrack, one mile in circumference, was located between the house and the road (Gregorie 1954:120,415). The Boykin map of the 1820s locates the Singleton place on the east side of the King's Highway, along what is now the west edge of the Poinsett ECR (Figure 30). At present, archeological site 38SU149 is believed to be the nucleus of the old Richard Singleton plantation. An adjoining site, 38SU150, is thought to be the home of Richard Singleton's mother, identified on the Boykin map as "Mrs. S" (Kreisa et al. 1996:130). Both of these sites have been archaeologically tested and determined to be eligible for the National Register.

Figure 30  
Boykin's 1820 Map Showing the General Area of Shaw AFB and Poinsett AFB



Richard Singleton's racetrack was not an isolated whim. Horseracing was introduced and popularized by General Sumter, who loved the sport. The general had his own racehorse, "Stateburg," and race track, located on level land between Stateburg and the river. Not to be outdone, Matthew Singleton and his son John had their own horses in the 1780s and 1790s. They also had their own track, created about the same time (Revill 1968:17). This track was probably the one located in a small Carolina bay between Manchester and Big Bay, identified in the Boykin Map as "R. Singleton's race turf". By the 1830s, if not before, John's son, Richard Singleton, had his own racetrack, a more formal layout situated immediately in front of his house, between the house and the road (Gregorie 1954:65-66, 215, 415).

Horseracing was not the only popular sport in the Manchester area. Another was "fives," a ball game popular in the early 1800s. The game took place in a cleared area called an "alley," beside a wooden wall 40 feet long by 30 feet high known as a "battery." Two opposing teams of five or more players were arranged opposite each other in parallel rows, perpendicular to the battery. The ball was put in play by bouncing it against the battery, and teams scored points when their opponents failed to return the ball. The winning team was the first to reach five, and it is recorded that a typical game was lengthy (Gregorie 1954:216-217).

The most popular fives alley in the whole area was located immediately south of Manchester, and was frequented by General Sumter himself. It is recorded that as late as 1820, when he was 86 years of age, Sumter played an entire game at the Manchester alley (Gregorie 1954:216-217).

## HEIGHT OF THE ANTEBELLUM PERIOD (1830S-1860)

Beginning in the 1810s and continuing on through at least the 1850s, there was a great migration of small farmers and finally planters into the new lands opened by the successful conclusion of the War of 1812 and the removal of the remaining Southeast Indian tribes in the years that followed. This opened vast tracts of land for cotton cultivation, which was already suffering in the older southern states from soil exhaustion and poor farming practices. The exodus from South Carolina alone was so great that, between the years 1830 and 1840, there was virtually no increase in the state's population (Gregorie 1954:110-114).

It was during this period that those remaining in economically depressed South Carolina were embroiled in the Nullification Controversy. At the insistence of Northern manufacturers, in the late 1820s Congress passed the nation's first serious tariff designed to hamper the import of foreign manufactured products. Forced to buy more expensive goods from the North rather than cheaper products from Britain, many in South Carolina took the lead in denouncing the tariffs, and finally decided that the law could be declared null and void in South Carolina if it conflicted with the interests of the state.

One of the first nullification meetings took place in Sumter District in 1827 (Miller 1827). By the early 1830s, the controversy had swept through all of South Carolina, with people hotly divided on the issue. Stateburg and Sumterville were predominantly for nullification, while Manchester was mostly in the opposite or "Unionist" camp (Gregorie 1954:147). Even General Sumter declared on the issue before his death in 1832, weighing in on the nullification side (Gregorie 1954:148-149). The drop in local cotton prices fueled the Nullification Movement, and it swept the state elections of 1832. Before the year was out, South Carolina passed the "Ordnance of Nullification."

After coming within a hair's breadth of open rupture, a compromise was finally reached in 1833, and the issue defused (Gregorie 1954:151-152). It was now clear, however, that North and South were increasingly two separate regions fitfully sharing the same government. It was an arrangement not destined to last.

From the 1830s until the eve of the Civil War, slave laws were tightened throughout the South, and free blacks found themselves hemmed in by increasing restrictions. These laws tended to increase the incidence of runaways, not all of whom found their way north. Some runaway slaves banded together, like the notorious "Joe's Gang" of the 1820s, which hid in the extensive swamps near the confluence of the Wateree and Congaree and raided homesteads from Manchester to Nelson's Ferry (Gregorie 1954:144).

Much more unusual was the case of William Ellison, a black ginwright whose work was popular with the planters around Stateburg. Ellison made enough money on cotton gins to buy his family out of slavery. In 1838, he bought the Stateburg house of Governor Stephen D. Miller, which remained in the Ellison family for the next three generations. By the 1840s, Ellison himself owned 40 to 50 slaves and was reputed to be worth between 80 and 100 thousand dollars, a veritable fortune in those days. Before his death in 1861, Ellison owned much of Stateburg (Gregorie 1954:134-136).

It was during this period before the Civil War that plantations reached their apogee throughout the South, including those within the area around present-day Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR. By this time, local plantations had spread out from the confines of the High Hills to the areas further east. Some of these newer plantations, such as Grafton, Springfield, and Oakland, were situated along new roads. One of these was Fish Road, which passed through what is now Shaw AFB. This was also the area of the "Turks," descendants of Benenhaley and Scott (Sumter 1949:38).

One of the largest of the local plantations in the Shaw area was located where Fish Road intersected with the main Columbia-Sumterville Road (modern Highway 76). Owned and operated by the Frierson family, the first house at this site was called "Rural Plains." Later, John Napoleon Frierson (1818-1887) established an even grander place on adjacent land, called "Cherry Vale" (Sumter 1949:37; Frierson 1972). Located on the south side of Highway 76, immediately outside what would later be Shaw AFB, Cherry Vale was used by the military intermittently throughout World War II, only to burn a few years after the war.

Another notable of the Stateburg area during this period was Joel R. Poinsett (1779-1851). Poinsett served as first U.S. ambassador to Mexico, where he found and introduced into this country a type of flowering Euphorbia plant that has since taken his name: the poinsettia. Poinsett later served as state senator, U.S. Congressman, and finally Secretary of War under President Van Buren. After his death in 1851, Poinsett was buried at Stateburg's Holy Cross Church, which had been constructed of rammed earth just the year before (Moulton 1970).

Probably the greatest of the local antebellum plantations was built between 1830 and 1840 by John Laurence Manning, who would later be governor of South Carolina. Located on a spur road off the King's Highway, just a few miles southwest of what is now Poinsett ECR, Manning's plantation home was (and is) one of the largest and most beautiful not only in Sumter County, but in the entire South. Named "Milford," Manning's Greek-Revival mansion represents the architectural height of the antebellum period (Gregorie 1954:271; Katherine Richardson, personal communication 1996).

The height of antebellum plantations was also the era of the first railroads in South Carolina. In 1848, service began on Sumter District's first railroad, a South Carolina Railroad line between Camden and Kingville (now Wateree). This line was situated between the Wateree River and the High Hills, and crossed the Wateree to Kingville just west of Manchester. At Kingville, there was a connection with the main South Carolina Railroad line between Columbia and Charleston (Gregorie 1954:164-165; Kreisa et al. 1996:36).

Almost immediately, right of way was purchased for a rail line between Wilmington, North Carolina, and Manchester, to connect up with the South Carolina Railroad (Gregorie 1954:165-166; Revill 1968:31). Known as the Wilmington and Manchester Railroad, it was constructed by 1852. The new rail line was situated one mile south of Manchester itself, to take advantage of a better grade. The station that served Manchester was named Ramsey's Depot, located within what is now the Poinsett ECR. The remains of this depot have been identified as archeological site 36SU60 (Kreisa et al. 1996:73) and it has been determined eligible for the National Register. Despite the distance to the depot, the new railroad turned Manchester into a busy town; even when much of the community was burned on January 25, 1855, it was quickly rebuilt (Gregorie 1954:170). Figure 31 is a sketch of the town in that year, showing the core, the location of the depot, and Singleton's race track.

The construction of these two lines, joined just west of Manchester, provided direct rail connection between Columbia and Wilmington, with a line north to Camden and two connections to Charleston: one by way of the South Carolina Railroad and the other by way of the Northeastern Railroad, connecting with the Wilmington-Manchester Line at Florence. Vitally important to local commerce, these rail connections would attract attention to the area in the closing days of Sherman's March through the Carolinas.

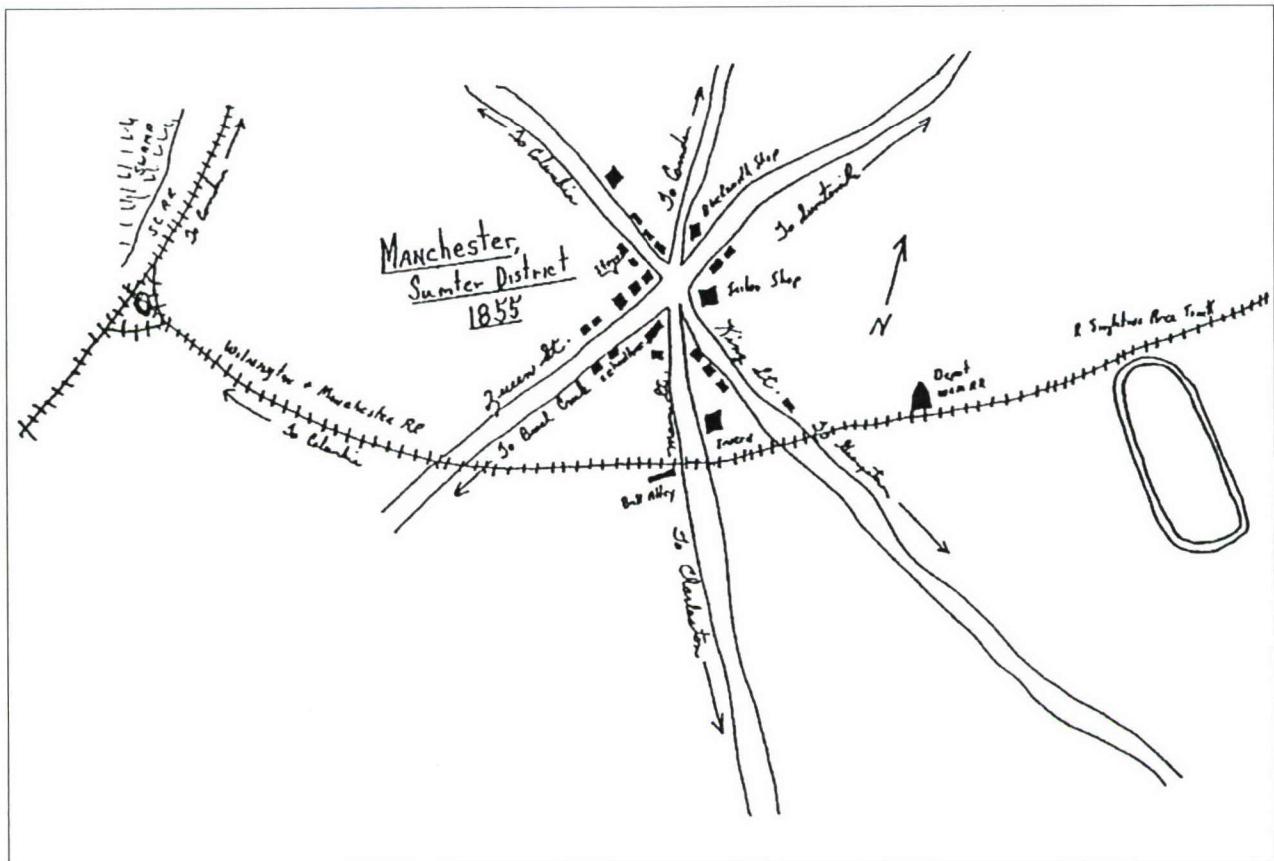
## CIVIL WAR (1861-1865)

Sectional conflict between the North and the South, merely foreshadowed by the Nullification Controversy, intensified greatly in the 1850s. South Carolina was deeply involved in this growing sectionalism, and Sumter District was no exception to the rule. First, there was South Carolina's lead in the secession movement, popular in the months before the 1850 Compromise. This was followed by "Bloody Kansas" in the middle 1850s (Potter 1976). The local "Kansas Association of Sumter District" was formed to send colonists to that territory in the false hope of creating a new slave state (Gregorie 1954:236).

The conflict in Kansas galvanized sectional feelings in both North and South, and paved the way for the rise of the Republican Party in the North and the breakup of the national Democratic Party. Abraham Lincoln's election as the nation's first Republican president in November of 1860 led to South Carolina's secession from the Union in December of that year. Following South Carolina's lead, six other cotton states pulled out of the Union by February of 1861, forming a new government in Montgomery, Alabama. After the firing on Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor in April, and Lincoln's call for troops to crush the rebellion, an additional four states in the Upper South joined the new Confederacy. The capital was moved to Richmond in late May of 1861, setting the stage for the next four years of civil war.

For most of those four years, the war was fought far from the Sumter District. Federal forces landed on the southern coast of South Carolina as early as November of 1861, but soon concentrated against Charleston. By the summer of 1862, and for the next three years, Charleston was under siege by Federal land and sea forces. The High Hills area became a haven for refugees fleeing the war-torn coast (Sumter 1949:39).

Figure 31  
Manchester in 1855



Source: Sumter County Genealogical and History Research Library

The local area was spared the direct effects of war until General Sherman entered the state in early 1865. After completing his march through Georgia in the last months of 1864, Sherman turned north from Savannah in January with his army of 60,000, entering Columbia in mid-February. Leaving the city in ruins, he continued north, veered east at Winnsboro and crossed the Wateree north of Camden, continuing east-northeast toward North Carolina (South Carolina History Series 1968: SC-6, War of Secession).

Even though Sherman did not enter Sumter District, he was aware of the considerable rolling stock bottled up on the Wilmington-Manchester Railroad, now cut off by the fall of Columbia and the almost simultaneous fall of Charleston and Wilmington. Sherman wanted this railroad stock destroyed, and ordered Brigadier General Edward E. Potter in Charleston to do the job (Gregorie 1954:259-260).

Potter established Georgetown as the kick-off point for what has since come to be called "Potter's Raid." Combining three regiments of black troops and two regiments of white troops, as well as some cavalry detachments, Potter put together a force of some 2,700 men. Potter's troops left Georgetown on April 5 (Gregorie 1954:260). By this time, the war was almost over. Sherman had already checked Joe Johnston at Bentonville in North Carolina, and Lee had just been forced to give up Richmond. The Confederate government was in flight, and Lee himself was just days from surrendering at Appomattox.

Potter's force was transported up the Santee to a landing near Nelson's Ferry, and then marched north to Manning (Gregorie 1954:260). Continuing on toward Sumterville, they encountered a militia force of some 575 men under a Col. Caldwell, five miles south of town. There, on April 9, the militia was scattered by Potter's troops in an engagement known as Dingle's Mill (Gregorie 1954:261-263). Sumterville was looted in the two days that followed, after which the troops left for Manchester, 12 miles to the west (Gregorie 1954:265-266).

Arriving in Manchester on the 11th, Potter established his headquarters at Richard Singleton's mansion, while his troops destroyed railroad stock, the trestle over the Wateree, and burned some of the local houses. It was probably at this point that Potter's troops destroyed Ramsey's Depot (Kreisa et al. 1996). Potter's First Brigade camped in the gardens around the Singleton mansion. During this period, a Confederate soldier was found on the grounds; upon refusing to take the oath of allegiance to the United States, he was killed and is reputed to be buried at one of the corners of the Singleton house. Potter then moved north along the King's Highway and the Camden spur of the South Carolina Railroad, passing through Stateburg, Bradford Springs, and finally Camden itself. After the destruction of the railroad stock, Potter's force pulled back to the south, again passing through Manchester, fighting small skirmishes along the way (Gregorie 1954:266-269).

During the return visit to the Manchester area, Potter stopped off at Milford, John Manning's plantation home just a few miles southwest of the Poinsett ECR. Manning himself was present when Potter passed through. Potter spared the house, and was entertained by the family and assembled friends, who gave a tour of the mansion to the Federal officers. Minutes after Potter left Milford, word was brought to Manning that Johnston and Sherman had signed an armistice that effectively ended the war in the Carolinas. Word of this agreement was passed to Potter, now on his way to Wright's Bluff for the return trip to Georgetown (Gregorie 1954:269-271). This news brought an end to the Civil War in the Sumter District.

## RECONSTRUCTION (1865-1877)

The first couple of years after the Civil War were an uncertain period in the Sumter District, as it was in all of South Carolina. Reconstruction was finally felt in full-force in 1868 with disenfranchisement of former Confederates, and voting rights for former slaves. The government that resulted, distasteful to the former masters of South Carolina, was run by the Republican Party and was supported by people who had had virtually no political power before the war. One of the first moves of the new government was to draw up a new state constitution in 1868. One of the more permanent features of the so-called "Reconstruction Constitution" was the change from districts to counties. Sumter District henceforth became Sumter County (Stauffer 1994:4).

Change was less apparent at the local level than it was at the seat of government. The former slaves were not given land, and most eventually were forced by economic necessity into some sort of agreement with their former masters, who still owned land but had no laborers. This led to widespread renting and sharecropping. Within a very short period of time, tenant farming replaced slavery as the dominant economic arrangement in the Shaw AFB/Poinsett ECR area.

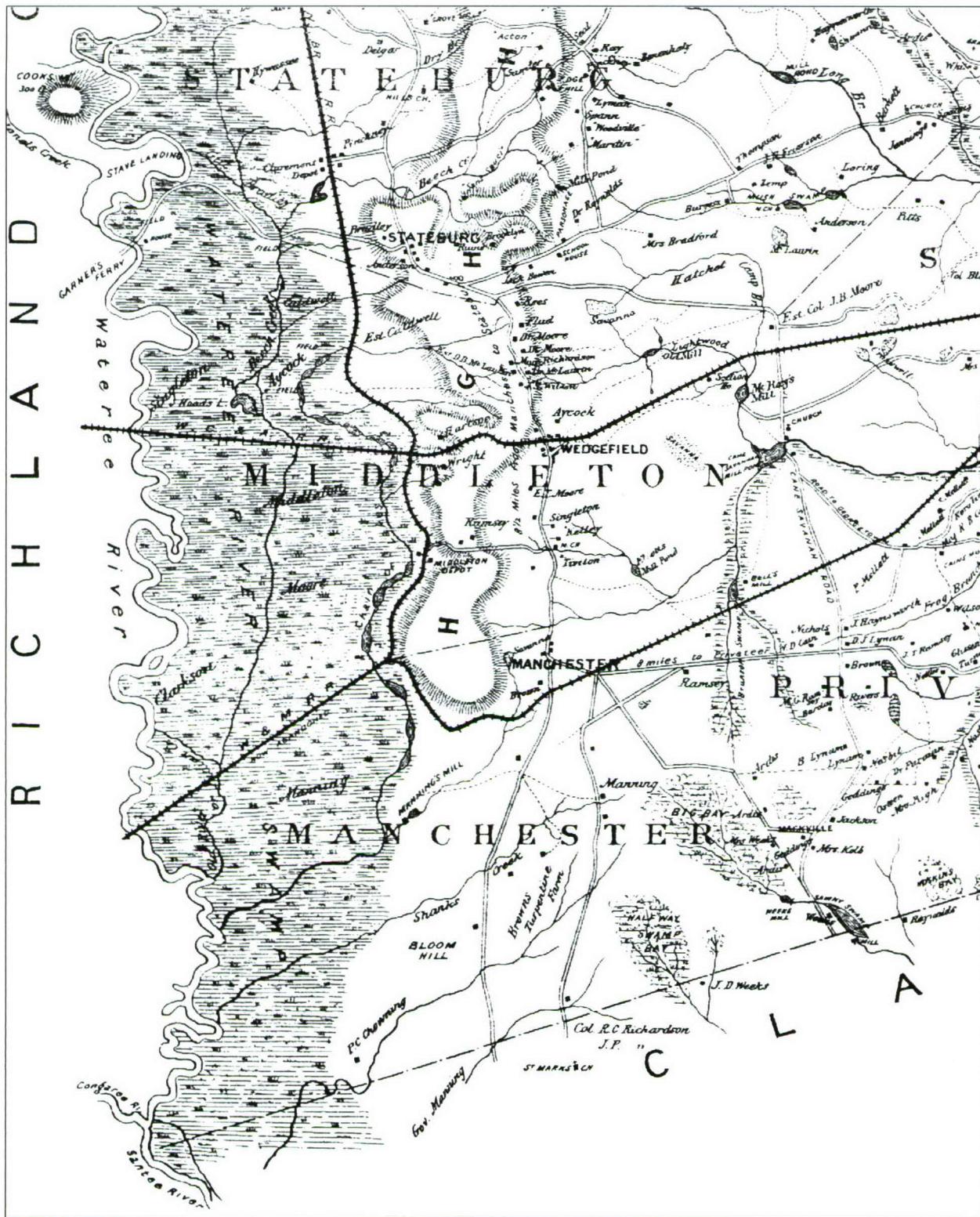
Local railroads soon recovered from Potter's Raid. The Wilmington and Manchester opened briefly in the fall of 1865, but was soon forced to close again. This was followed by the opening of the Camden Branch Railroad in 1867. In 1870, the Wilmington and Manchester was sold and renamed the "Wilmington, Columbia and Augusta Railroad." The following year, the new company established a more direct line between Sumter and Columbia that passed through Wedgefield plantation, half way between Manchester and Stateburg (Figure 32). This led to the abandonment of the old Wilmington-Manchester line, which in turn led to the decline of Manchester itself (Gregorie 1954:316-317; Kreisa et al. 1996; Moulton 1970).

Defeated at the local level, it was only a matter of time before political Reconstruction in state government would falter and fail. The mid-1870s brought race riots to various parts of the state, as local white leaders perceived a weakening of the federal will to enforce Reconstruction. This led to the political rise of former Confederate cavalry commander Wade Hampton and his Red Shirts, and the bitter election of 1876. For a brief while, South Carolina had two governments, until Federal troops were withdrawn from the state in April of 1877. Wade Hampton took over as official governor, ending 12 years of Reconstruction government (Gregorie 1954:352).

## ERA OF SMALL FARMING AND LOGGING (1880S – 1940S)

Reconstruction's collapse led to a partial restoration of the old pre-war social order. After Wade Hampton, the restored leaders were not as powerful as before the war. The unsettled times were bad for large plantations, many of which went under. By the 1880s, the era of large plantations was on the wane, gradually to be replaced by small-scale farming. This social transformation had political repercussions, as Bill Tillman became a force. In the 1880s, Tillman was the champion of the small white farmer, prevalent in the Piedmont, and the bane of the old planter class on the coastal plain. His bitter gubernatorial campaign brought to the fore the old division between Low Country aristocrats and the Upland yeomanry, or as one saying had it, the old South Carolina contest between Huguenots and pineknots, chivalry and shovelry (Gregorie 1954:360-366).

Figure 32  
1878 McLaurin Map



After Tillman became governor in 1890, the last vestiges of Reconstruction were swept away. The "Tillman Dictatorship," as it was often referred to, saw economic protectionism for small white farmers (Tillman's "New Deal"), the complete disenfranchisement of local blacks, full-scale racial segregation, and a new state constitution to cement all of these changes. Tillman's constitution remained in force until the mid-1900s (Gregorie 1954:370-393).

Although Sumter County was not a Tillman stronghold, the area nonetheless saw a decrease in the larger plantations, and a concomitant rise in the incidence of small land holdings. Despite the break-up of the larger holdings, cotton remained an important cash crop until the boll weevil infestation of the early 1920s forced farmers to diversify (Ramsey and Green 1922:66). As cotton declined, tobacco and timber became more popular. Logging was particularly big in the future Poinsett ECR area.

One element essential to the growth of the logging industry was the expansion of the local rail facilities, and this occurred in the 1880s, 1890s, and early 1900s. One of the more prominent developments was the rail line between Sumter and Pinewood, immediately southeast of the Poinsett area. Originally built in the 1880s as the Charleston, Sumter, and Northern Railroad, it was acquired by the Atlantic Coast Line Railroad in the 1890s, and has remained in operation since that time (Gregorie 1954:478).

Probably as a result of logging demands, there was a brief rebirth of the local segment of the old Wilmington and Manchester line. A new charter was issued in 1898, with the rail line completed for service the following year. This local segment included a 16-mile stretch of the line between Sumter and Sumter Junction, and soon became part of the Southern Railroad system, heir to the old South Carolina Railroad. This line was finally abandoned for the last time in the 1930s, probably with the decline of local logging (Gregorie 1954:479).

The heyday of logging, especially in the area around Poinsett ECR, occurred in the late 1800s to early 1900s (Kreisa et al. 1996). It was during this period that Sumter became known as the "Capital of the Lumber Industry" (Gregorie 1954:488). Closer to Poinsett, the combination of railroads and timber gave rise to the community of Pinewood, located immediately east of the southern tip of the ECR.

Originally called "Pine Log" by the blacks who worked at the local logging camp, Pinewood was a settled town by 1920, with a permanent population of 450. Located along the Atlantic Coast Line Railroad, Pinewood had 15 stores, two drug stores, two banks, one hotel, a barber shop, and an ice plant, all serving an area much greater than the town itself (Gregorie 1954:480-481; Ramsey and Green 1922:27).

With the advent of railroads and trucks, logging efficiency was increased several times over. No similar advances were made in timber conservation, and by the 1920s and 1930s, logging slowed dramatically, not just in Sumter County, but all over the Southeast, as clear-cutting denuded the land and forced timber companies to move. By the time of the Great Depression and Roosevelt's "New Deal," efforts were made to conserve timber resources, leading to the state parks and forests currently found in the area around present-day Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR.

## HISTORICAL ARCHAEOLOGY AT SHAW AFB AND POINSETT ECR

Only three historic archaeological sites have been determined eligible for the National Register of Historic Places and none of these have been subjected to data recovery. All of the sites are located on Poinsett ECR and represent three aspects of its history: rural plantation, town - commercial/transportation, and African-American farm owner/minister. The site with the earliest beginning date is the Singleton/Manning Plantation (38SU149/150), which dates from about 1820 to about 1910. The second site is the depot (38SU60) associated with the town of Manchester known as Ramsey's Depot. Constructed around 1852, it went out of use after the Civil War when the railroad was moved to the present day town of Wedgefield. Components at the site indicate that there were other buildings in this area with an occupation spanning the period of about 1830 to 1900. The final site is the Reverend Robert Black farmstead (38SU155), which was occupied between 1905 and 1920. Black was a land owner, farmer, and minister of a local church.

### SINGLETON/MANNING PLANTATION (38SU149/150)

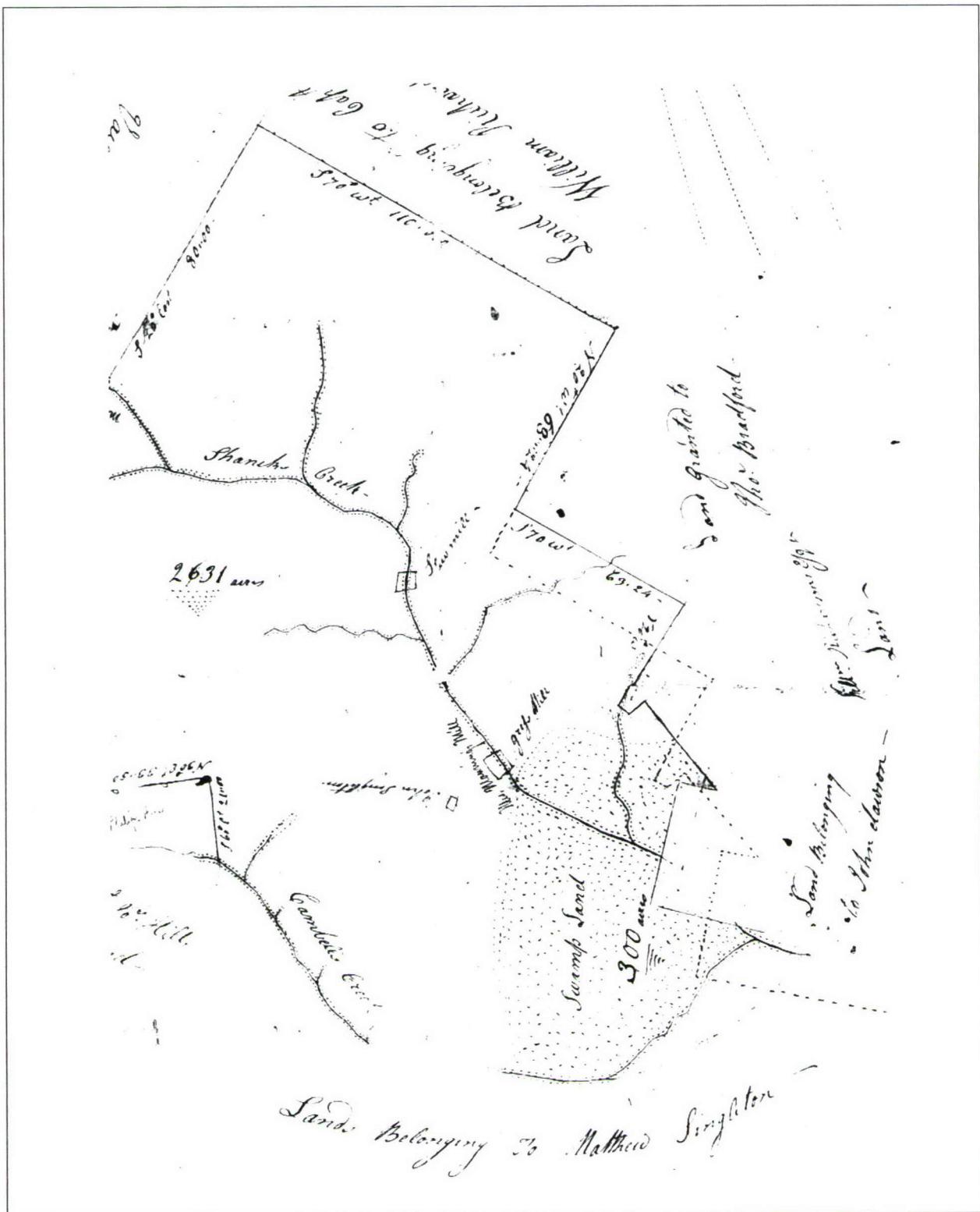
Early cartographic sources and chain-of-title research indicates that 38SU149/150 belonged to the Matthew Singleton family as early as 1785. By 1820 Boykin map shows the area of 38SU149 as being occupied by R. Singleton (probably Richard), with "Mrs. S." being located in the vicinity of 38SU150. The property passed through the hands of Christopher Williman and Junius J. and James E. Belzer before falling into the hands of Colonel Richard I. Manning II. The 4,130 acre tract was known as "the Gilman Place" at that time and Manning changed the name to Homesley Plantation when he acquired the property in 1857. The 1878 McLaurin Map shows the name Manning in this location at the head of Shanks Creek. Richard I. Manning II was the son of South Carolina Governor Richard I. Manning, Sr. who served the state from 1824 to 1826, and brother of John Laurence Manning who was Governor from 1852 to 1854. In addition to these political endeavors of the family, they were also cotton planters. Richard I. Manning II was elected to the state senate in 1855, but his political career was short-lived and he chose to carry on the family's planting tradition. The 1860 census has Manning living on the property with his wife, four young children, and a female relative. In that same year, the slave schedule lists 95 slaves under the ownership of "Richard I. Manning and two others" (Adams et al. 1997: 31-32).

As the Civil War approached, Manning desired to find a place of service and personally raised and equipped his own cavalry company. After recruiting with his brother, Brown Manning, in Columbia and Virginia, he obtained an assignment on the staff of General Patrick Nelson. On October 10, 1861, Richard I. Manning II died in his camp from the "effects of exposure on the coast" (Burt 1974).

Holmesley Plantation was left to his wife, Mrs. Elizabeth Allen Sinkler Manning, who assumed management of the property and the rearing of their children. As she continued the planting operations, General William T. Sherman began his march to the sea. *The History of Sumter County* by Anne King Gregorie makes reference to Civil War activity near their site during General Potter's raid on Sumter District in April of 1865. The account indicates that 700 bales of cotton owned by Mrs. Manning were set ablaze and that columns of smoke could be seen four miles away at Milford Plantation (Gregorie 1954: 269).

After the war, Mrs. Manning took in many homeless relatives, while she and her children occupied one room at Holmesley (Burt 1974). In 1881 she deeded Holmesley Plantation to her son, Richard I. Manning III. He received over 4,000 acres with the residence and a 30 acre parcel of land east of SC Hwy 261 retained by Mrs. Manning. Unsatisfied with the conditions at Holmesley, Richard I. Manning constructed

Figure 33  
Singleton-Manning Tract Map, c. 1820-1880



"Bellefield" in 1882, "on a wooded elevation south of his mother's home" (Burt 1974). Later, like his uncle and grandfather, Richard I. Manning III went on to become governor of South Carolina.

After the death of his mother, he sold a 165 acre parcel of Holmesley to G. C. Clark and L. Conyers, which included site 38SU149/150. Although the property had belonged to the Manning family for over 50 years, the plat which corresponds to this transaction describes the property as the "Gilman Summer-house Tract". A 1907 soil map of the area shows a structure at or near the site of 38SU149. The parcel was sold in 1923 to E. E. Jones who sold it to R. M. Barwick in 1929, and finally was acquired by the federal government in 1935 (Adams et al. 1997: 32-37).

Archaeological testing occurred at the Singleton/Manning Plantation (38SU149) in 1997 (Adams et al. 1997), while work at 38SU150 occurred in 2002 (Cantley et al. 2002). Site 38SU150 may be the location of "Mrs. S." on the 1820 Mills Atlas on the west side of the headwaters of Shanks Creek. Archaeological testing at the site identified two fieldstone and brick chimney piles. Test units identified a stone and mortar floor associated with one of those chimneys (Figure 34: see Cantley et al. 2002). Artifacts spanned a similar time period as that at 38SU149, and it was believed that the two sites were related and should be considered two loci of one site (Cantley et al. 2002: 69-73).

At 38SU149, a number of surface features were identified and mapped, including a rubble push pile, a bottle dump, several rubble scatters, two depressions, and scatters of tin, iron, bottle glass, and stoneware along the west bank of Shanks Creek (Figure 35). An animal pen was also noted beyond the site boundaries. Near the center of the site shovel testing encountered moderate to dense brick and fieldstone rubble as well as a burn layer. Three test units were excavated in this area. They revealed two different fieldstone house foundations: one oriented with magnetic north, while the other was oriented at about 45 degrees east of north. Based on the kinds of ceramics associated with these foundations, it was posited that the north-south foundation dated to the initial site occupation about 1820. The second foundation perhaps replaced that house which appears to have burned sometime after 1830.

The bottle dump contained a number of mid nineteenth century bottles and was intermingled with much later artifacts on the ground surface. It was believed to consist of bottles rejected by bottle hunters that were excavated out of an adjacent depression. The dump consisted of a homogeneous assemblage of primarily dark olive green Rickett's 3-piece mold beer bottles. It resembles bottle dumps found at a Civil War encampment on Folly Island (Legg and Smith 1989) and might possibly be related to Potter's Raid through the area in 1865.

Of particular interest was a fragment of Catawba Indian pottery found at the site. The rim sherd of what appeared to have been a straight-sided vessel with black clouding or paint. Edwin Scott, who lived in the town of Manchester during his boyhood between 1806 and 1811 remembers Catawba Indians traveling through the area selling their pottery. He stated that "a few Catawba Indians visited us every winter, with bows and arrows, moccasins, and earthenware pots and pans of their own manufacture, some very neatly made and prettily colored; ..." (Scott 1884: 13). These Catawbas apparently traded as they made their way down to Charleston. According to Anne King Gregorie (1925), Mr. Philip E. Porcher, who was born around 1827 and lived in Saint Stephen's Parish near the confluence of the Santee River and the Santee Canal, said that "he remembered frequently seeing the Catawba Indians in the days when they traveled down from the up-country to Charleston, making clay ware for the negroes along the way. They would camp until a section was supplied, then move on, till finally Charleston was reached. He said their ware

Figure 34  
Map of 38SU150

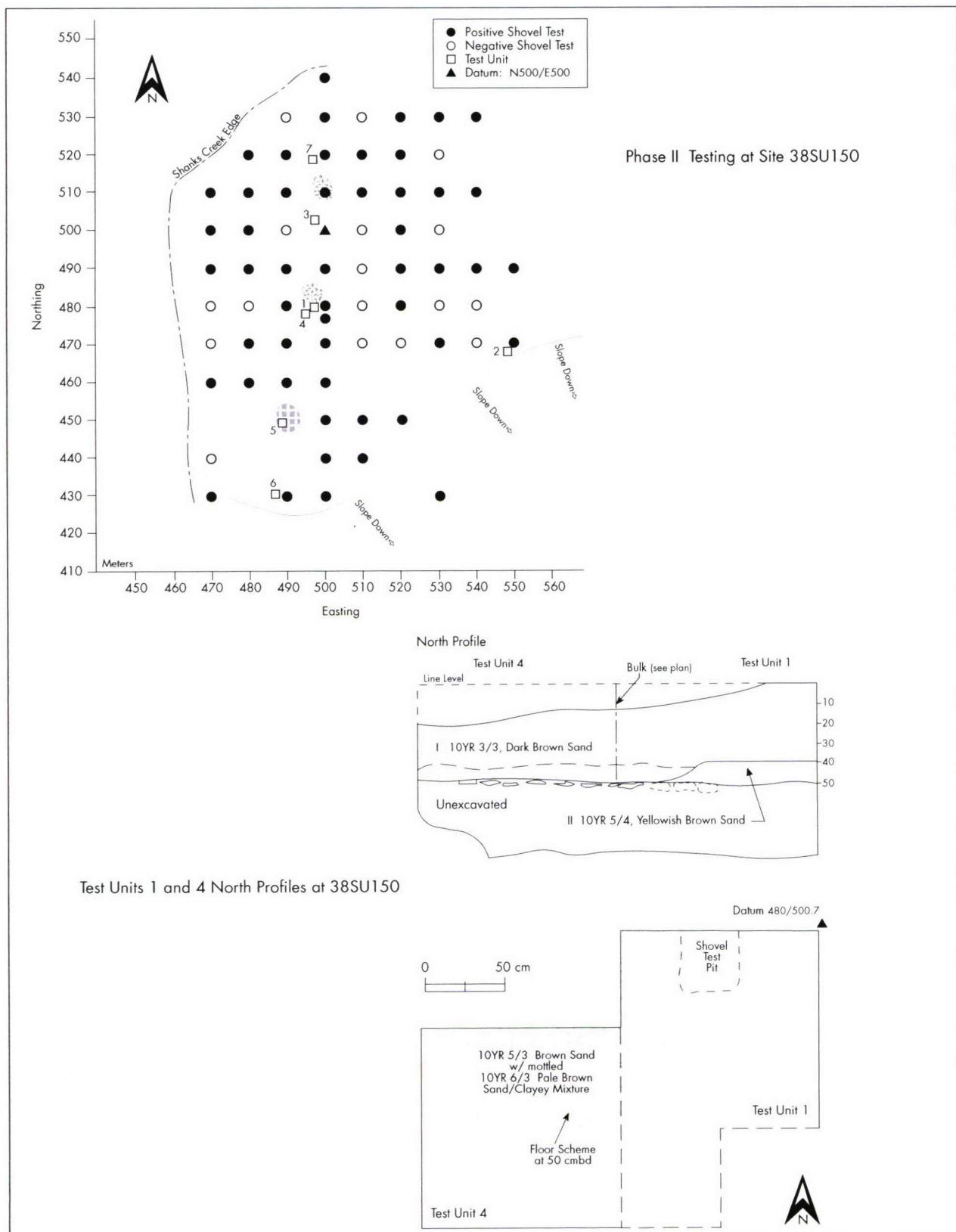
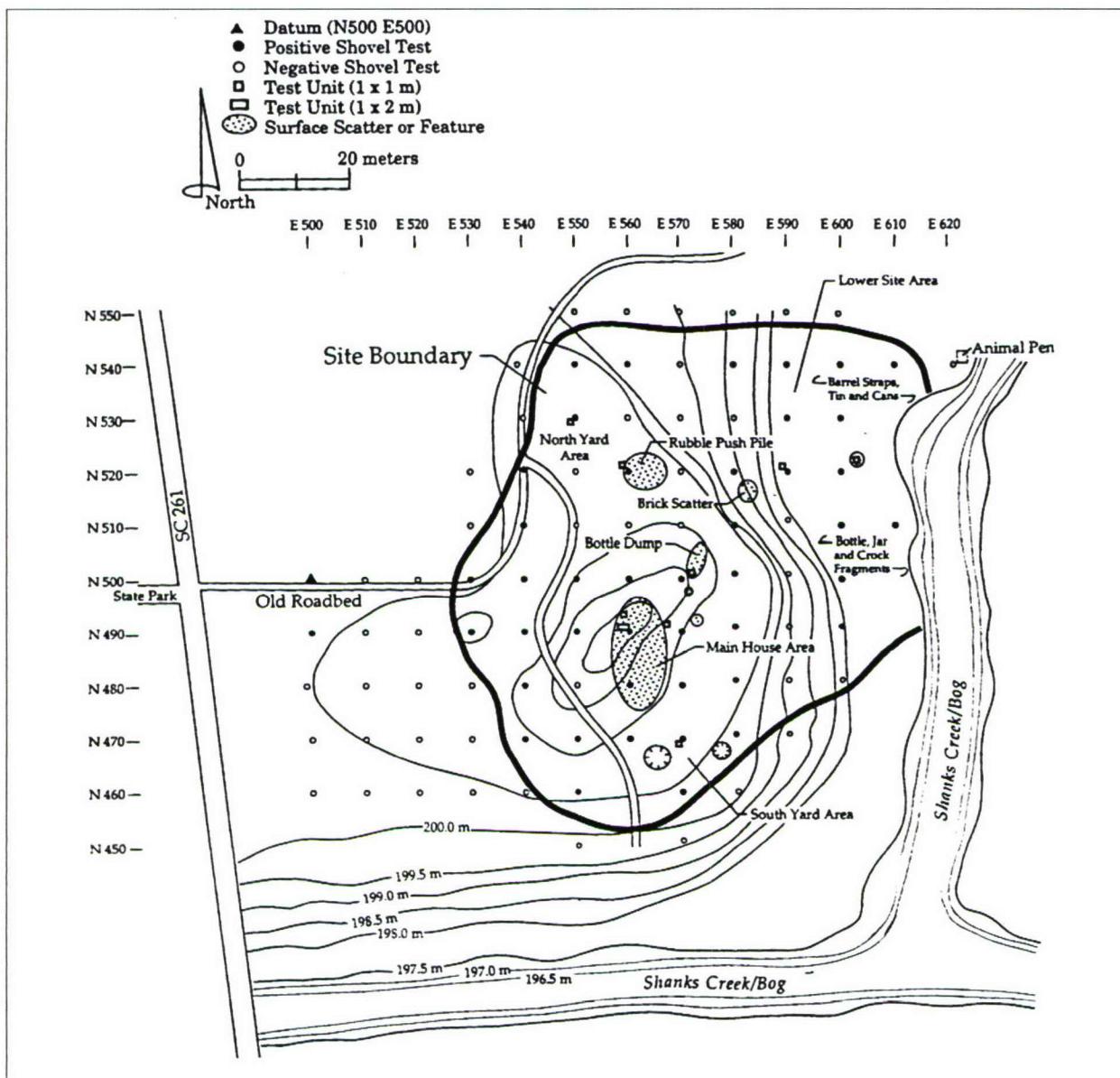


Figure 35  
Map of 38SU149



Source: Cable and Cantley, 1998 Fig. 10

was decorated with colored sealing wax and was in great demand, for it was before the days of cheap tin and enamels ware" (Gregorie 1925: 21). The Porcher family plantation was located 80 miles from Manchester by the Kings Highway.

Due to the fact that 38SU149/150 may have a component associated with Potter's Raid – an important event of local significance, because it was the boyhood home of Governor Richard Manning III, and because the site is believed to be able to address important research questions regarding a Midlands area plantation, these sites were recommended as eligible for nomination to the National Register of Historic Places.

#### MANCHESTER AKA RAMSEY'S DEPOT (38SU60)

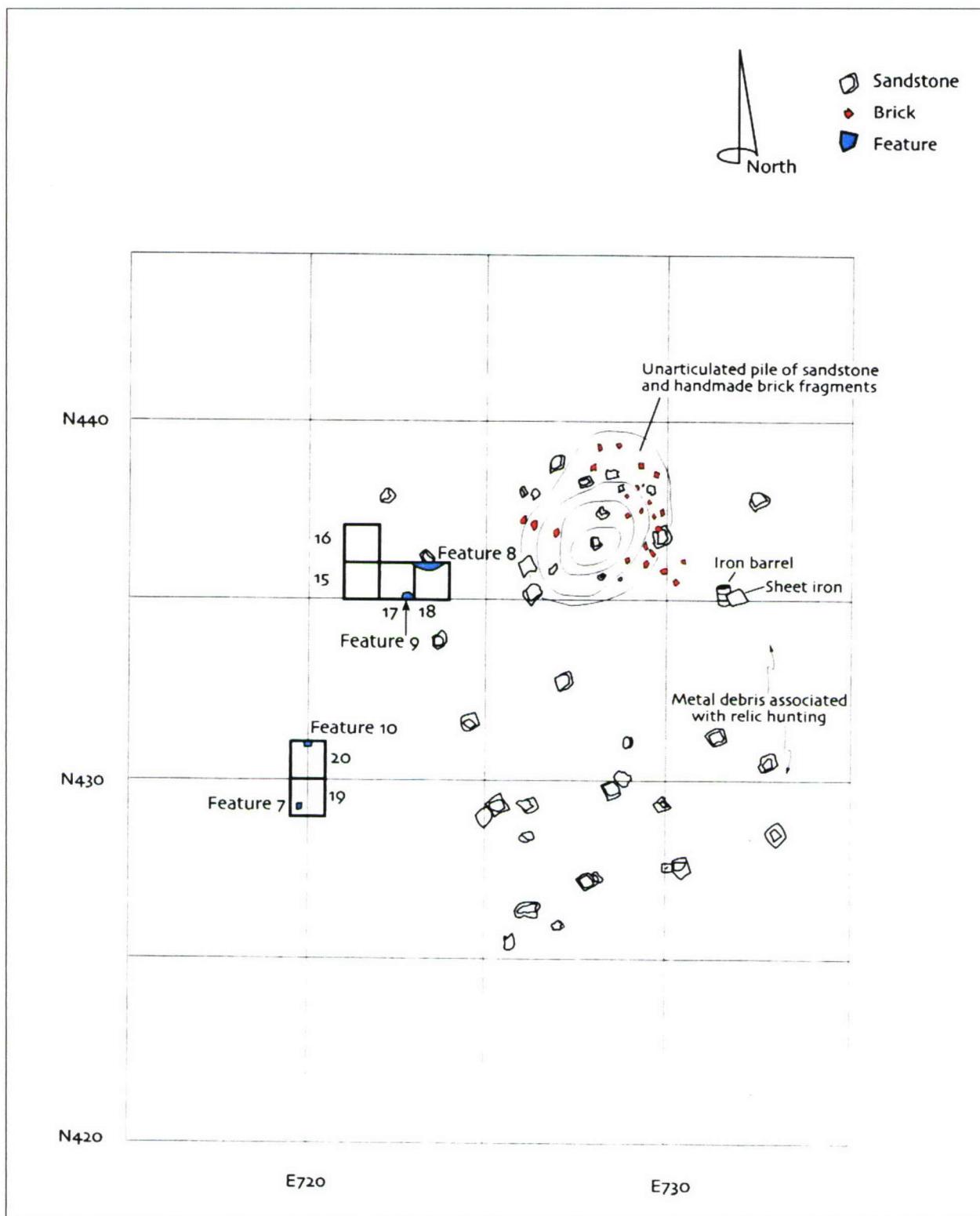
The history of the depot has been previously presented and the discussion here focuses on the archaeology that has been performed thus far. Archaeological testing at 38SU60 (Manchester aka Ramsey's Depot) revealed a rather large site encompassing approximately 11 acres including the depot and several other buildings of undetermined function. Based on artifact density information, as well as the location of chimney piles, foundation stones, and depressions, 20 one by one meter test units were placed at the site. These excavations found burned soil layers and artifacts which are probably related to destruction of the depot and surrounding buildings during Potter's raid near the end of the Civil War. Artifacts and their locations suggest not only that the Depot was located in this spot, but that there were structures in this location as well. Some of these buildings may have been domestic. Remnants of a chimney were found, as well as foundation stones, along with domestic-type artifacts such as ceramics and bottle glass. Subsurface features were identified during testing and included structural post-holes and trash pits. Although the railroad and depot were constructed in 1852, the artifacts indicate that there was an occupation in this location as early as 1830, which is probably an outlying house site related to the town of Manchester. While the town died after the railroad was moved to Wedgefield, artifacts indicate that this location continued to be used up until around 1900.

At least one relatively intact house foundation and associated chimney pile was identified during the testing (Figure 36). Unit excavation in this area revealed several features including pits and postholes. The presence of intact soil layers and structural remains indicates that the site contains a great deal of integrity. The site can yield important information about the rise and decline of a small transportation-related Southern town. Although the entire town of Manchester has yet to be defined and is outside of Poinsett ECR, the isolation of the depot and the extension or shift of the town in this location provides an opportunity to examine aspects of a small Southern community initially formed through social ties and economic status, and developed through commercial interests (Chapman et al. 2000).

#### REVEREND ROBERT BLACK FARMSTEAD (38SU155)

Robert Black, an African-American minister and farmer, acquired the 103-acre parcel containing site 38SU155 in 1905. Relatively little is known about Reverend Black. He was living in the area in 1880, although where he owned land at that time is unknown. Examination of the census records indicates that at the age of 26, he and his wife Matilda have two sons, Preston (age 3) and Willie (age 7). They had also adopted as their son a 17 year old African American young man by the name of Sumter Brisbane. Both Robert and Matilda are listed as unable to read and write. By 1900, their children listed in the 1880 census were grown and gone. At this time, the Blacks had a sixteen year old daughter named Serena and

Figure 36  
House Foundation identified as the Manchester (Ramsey's) Depot



a fifteen year old son named Robert Junior. They also had an 18 year old foster daughter, Flora. Also living with them are two farm hands by the name of David James (Age 34) and Arthur Ruce (Age 16). By 1900, Robert has learned to read and write, but Matilda had not. She passed away in 1907 and was buried at Beulah UME church near Cane Savannah. It should be noted that the UME denomination was not formed until 1968. After the Civil War, the dwindling population of African Americans in the Methodist Episcopal Church, South caused the remaining black members to defect to a new denomination, the Christian Methodist Episcopal Church (then called the Colored Methodist Episcopal Church). Beulah may have started out as such a church. Cemetery records list Matilda Black as being buried without her husband, Reverend Robert Black. It is unknown, but currently assumed that Black was the minister at Beulah. This 1907 cemetery record is the first occurrence of Robert Black being referred to as "Reverend". Given that he was previously illiterate, it is possible that he did not become a minister until sometime after 1880. The fact that he and his wife were adopting children or providing homes to foster children suggests that they were concerned with the physical and, logically, the spiritual well being of orphaned children.

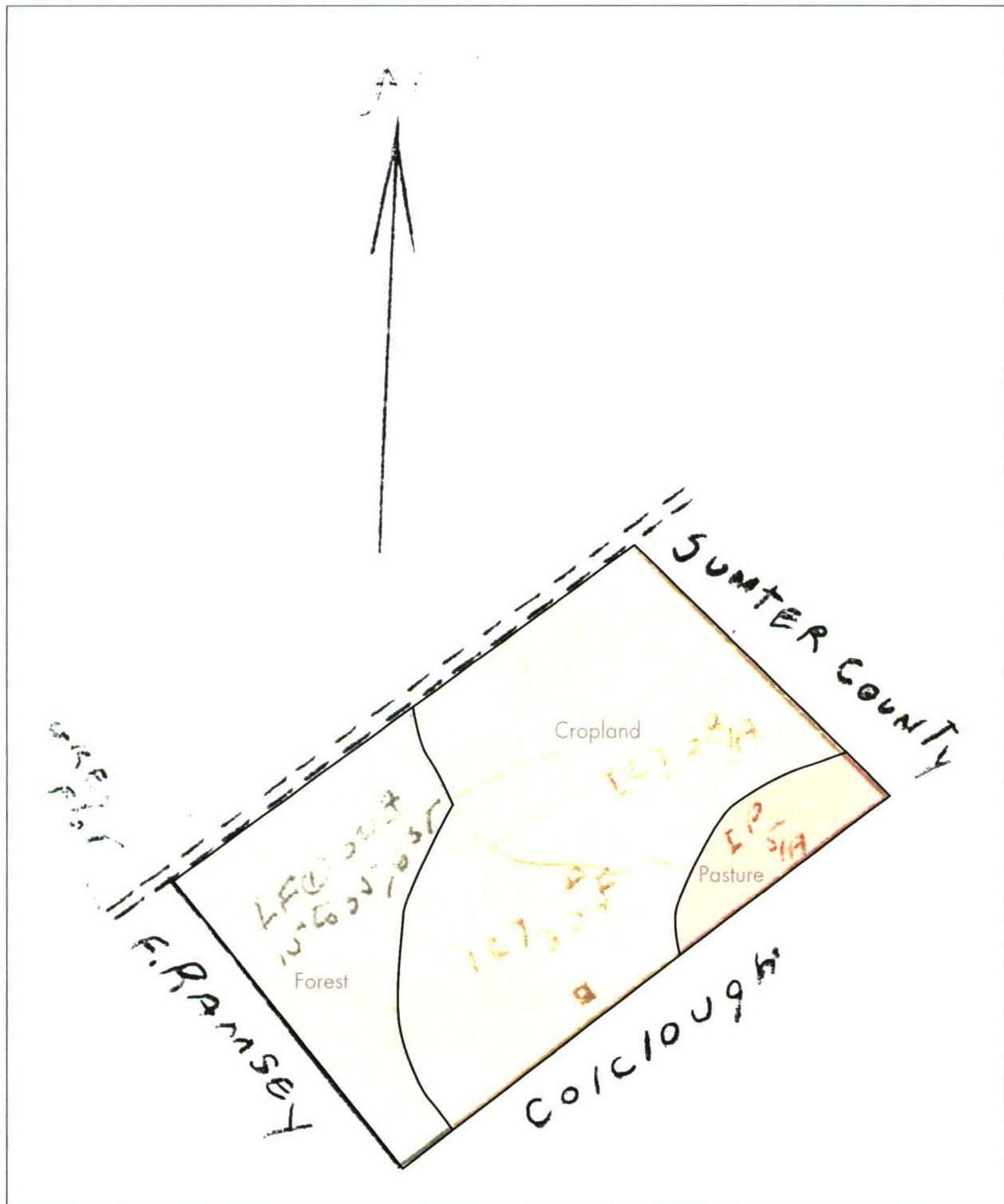
As previously mentioned, Black purchased the 103 acre tract in 1905. Five years later he was 55 years old and was remarried to a woman named Anna, a 42 year old African American school teacher. She brought with her four children, presumably from a previous marriage. They are Amanda and Silas (age 10), a 15 year old female (name illegible), and Saunders (age 17). They were all listed as having the last name Davis. Robert Jr and Serena, Black's children from his previous marriage, were still living at home.

Apparently, Anna died as the 1920 census lists Reverend Robert Black (age 63) as being married to a 23 year old mulatto woman named Dorcas. They had two young children: Arthur (age 2) and Olive (7 months). Reverend Black died that same year on October 22.

The 103 acre property was held by his estate until it was sold to the Forfeited Land Commission of Sumter County in April 1930 (Sumter County deed book I-5:7). Taxes were owed on this land for 1926, 1927, and 1928 and the sheriff took possession of it in January, 1928. The Sumter County Forfeited Land Commission, which oversaw foreclosed property, intended that this acreage and surrounding parcels be combined to create Manchester State Park. The Farm Security Administration (FSA) took over their properties in 1938. At that time, a tenant, Arthur Johnson, occupied the land containing the project site. It was appraised with 73 acres of cropland, five acres of pasture and 30 acres of forest with no merchantable timber. Also on the property were two frame dwellings. The first was described as being 27 years old and measuring 48x14ft and in poor condition. The second was 25 years old, measured 12x14ft and was also in poor condition. Both would have been constructed in Robert Black's lifetime. There was also a pole barn measuring 20x18 ft. The FSA categorized it as sub marginal land and took it over under the guise of the National Recovery Act with the intention of turning the area into a state park and consequently, Manchester State Forest was formed (FSA). Eventually the part of the forest on the east side of SC 261 was acquired by the U.S. Air Force for use as the Poinsett Electronic Combat Range.

The site was originally identified by Kreisa et al. (1996) during their survey of Poinsett Electronic Combat Range. Actually, a cluster of three, probably related sites were found in this vicinity including 38SU154, 38SU155, and 38SU242. Site 38SU154 was a trash dump probably related to the occupations at 38SU155 and 38SU242. Site 38SU242 was another house site. Testing did not recover any artifacts and the site was not recommended as significant. It is likely that this is the second house mentioned in the 1930 acquisition document.

Figure 37  
Acquisition Map Showing the Location of  
Structures at the Robert Black Farmstead



Site 38SU155 represents a dwelling dating to the occupation of the property by Reverend Robert Black and his family between 1905 and 1928. This site represents a rare occupation type in the region: African-American owned farms. In 1910, African Americans made up 73 percent of Sumter County's population, but only 11 percent of the African American male population of voting age owned their own farms. The average farm size was 123 acres, although it is unknown what the average farm size was for black owners versus white owners. Black owned 103 acres, which is a medium sized farm in comparison to the total land owning population. As previously mentioned, Robert Black was listed as illiterate in 1880, but by 1900 he could read and write. By 1910, 85 percent of the African American male population of voting age in Sumter County was literate. Great strides in literacy had been made since for the South as a whole there was a 68 percent gap between black and white literacy rates in 1870.

Home sites occupied by African American owners are not well represented in the archaeological literature and very little is known historically about the lives of early twentieth century African American farm owners. A number of tenant farms occupied by African Americans have been examined, but no owner sites have been excavated. Black was also a minister, and there may be some archaeological evidence of his profession. No homes of black ministers have been archaeologically examined, although work has been done at a Prays House on St. Helena Island and at the Levi Jordan Plantation in Texas (Brown 1995; 2001). Both of these, however, pre-date 38SU155.

Historically, black churches have been the most important and dominant institutions in African American communities. They have had more influence in molding the thoughts and lives of African Americans than any other single factor. Until recently, however, the black church was predominantly a rural church. This can be illustrated by an 1890 census, which indicated that nine out of ten black people lived in the South and more than 80 percent of them in rural areas. The Black rural church was characterized by a clergy that often held secular jobs in order to support themselves economically. Much of the black rural congregation was poor and although fiercely devoted to the pastor, could not adequately take care of the pastor's economic needs. The churches did not provide pension benefits or health insurance, and this forced the clergy to work long beyond their retirement age. Due to their lack of resources, black rural churches did not participate in many community outreach programs, and rarely supported black institutions devoted to higher learning. Despite these shortcomings, the greatest strength of the black rural church lies in the loyalty of its members towards each other and to the church. Even today, the rural church serves not only as a religious institution, but as a social club, a political arena, an art gallery, and a conservatory of music. In effect, the lives of the black rural church members are centered around their church (Khan 2005). Because of the importance of the church in the African American community, ministers were very influential people.

This site contains structural remains and artifact deposits that are both chronologically and spatially discrete, indicating a strong potential to provide important information about the lifeways and material culture of Sumter County area African American farm owners and ministers. This potential is made more important by the lack of archaeological and historical studies of this social and economic group in Sumter County and the state in general (Botwick et al. 2005).

## RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ADDITIONAL HISTORIC SITE RESEARCH

While archaeology at these three sites can address research questions about the material aspects of high status plantation occupations, 19<sup>th</sup> century town life, and the lives of African-American farm owners, historical documents regarding Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR also have much to offer. Regarding the planter

class, there are manuscripts pertaining to the Singleton, Manning, and Richardson families, as well as others, on file at the South Caroliniana Library at the University of South Carolina, as well as at Sumter County repositories. A thorough history of the plantations and families living at Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR should be able to shed some additional light on the social and economic life in the High Hills area. In addition, a thorough examination of the businesses, homes, and social activities associated within the old town of Manchester can provide information about the community as a whole, perhaps including African-Americans who frequented the town. However, the depth of information regarding the town is currently unknown.

Property acquisition documents from the 1930s could also provide some detailed information on early twentieth century life in the area. These documents include land plats showing the locations of structures and land use information. Associated documents include information on the condition of the land, descriptions of buildings and their conditions, and who occupied the property at acquisition. This information tied into population, industrial, and agricultural census data can provide a good picture of the Shaw/Poinsett community. Information on the social, ethnic, and economic structure of the area can be ascertained. Were there areas within Shaw and Poinsett that were family based or race based? What were the economic and educational differences between tenants and owners, blacks and whites? Information on kin-based groups/communities may be gleaned to get a better picture of family structure, the extended family, and gender roles within families. A similar study has been proposed for Fort Bragg, North Carolina where populations consisted not only of African-Americans and Euro-Americans, but also the Lumbee Indian population (Carl Steen, personal communication – June 7, 2005).

Such historical information is just as valuable, if not more so, as any National Register eligible site. By getting a thorough understanding of the area's history and more specifically the communities within Shaw/Poinsett, the significance of the historic archaeological sites is elevated and the data they can yield even more revealing. Shaw AFB/Poinsett ECR should consider exploring a thorough historical study of the area to be provided as a popular publication.

# V. CONCLUSIONS

## PREHISTORIC ARCHAEOLOGY

The excavations of prehistoric sites at Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR have focused on specific research questions; primarily the examination of single household units within isolatable components. Research by John Cable and Chuck Cantley was able to reconstruct the layout of these households by examining the clustering of lithic raw material types and looking for lithic reduction areas and stone tool clusters where they speculate hearths were located. They also concluded that the types of raw materials preferred by certain prehistoric groups supply important information about the settlement system at specific points in time as well as how the settlement system changed through time. Although they have been successful in reconstructing Archaic period households, there is still little known about the Paleoindian, Woodland, and Mississippian Periods.

The examination and dating of prehistoric pottery types at Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR indicates that there is a high degree of temporal overlap, particularly amongst the Middle Woodland ceramic types. The data gathered thus far indicates that the ceramic sequence for this part of South Carolina needs additional evaluation and updating.

Additional information is need on a variety of data types in order to build a fuller picture of the prehistoric occupation of the area. The subsistence data that has been collected thus far has not taken full advantage of the more data-rich locations within occupational floors. Instead of using a random column, samples should be taken from broader areas known to contain living floors of specific occupations.

In the identification of hearthing areas, the location of faunal bone has been important. However, this association has been haphazard and Cantley and Cable (2002a: 342) recommend that the entire horizontal extent of floors be examined in order to demonstrate that these hearthing areas are different from other areas of the floor.

As previously mentioned, data recovery thus far has focused on site structure. More information is needed on community patterns. It is possible that the basic units identified as occupational floors represent the entire outputs from contemporaneous events. However, it is also possible that there is a larger level of organization that has yet to be discovered wherein groups of these floors were linked in a band-level occupation of the site. Cantley and Cable (2002a: 342) suggest that once possible contemporaneous floors have been identified, which are clustered, an arrangement of closely located block excavations could be placed to target these floors. Areas between these excavations could be examined with closely spaced shovel tests to link the floors and provide a basis for evaluating extramural space within the proposed community. Since we now know more about the diversity of settlement types and floors that exist within the region, it would be appropriate to focus only on the more contemporaneous grouping for excavations.

## HISTORICAL ARCHAEOLOGY AND HISTORY

Previous work at Shaw AFB and Poinsett ECR has identified 56 historic sites (Kreisa et al. 1996). The majority of these sites were late nineteenth to early twentieth century tenant and owner farmsteads. After the Civil War, plantations were split up and by 1880 the area was predominated by small farms, so the preponderance of late sites is not unexpected. Kreisa et al. 1996 concluded that the vast majority of these sites were located adjacent to roads, which is a typical pattern found throughout South Carolina.

Deposits from historic sites tend to be relatively shallow and, unfortunately, this situation has caused them to receive a greater degree of disturbance from cultivation, logging, and other activities. As a result, only three of the 56 sites were determined to be eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. No largescale excavation has occurred at any of these and there is much to be learned from these sites. The three significant historic sites include Singleton/Manning Plantation (38SU149/150), the Manchester Depot (38SU60), and the Robert Black Farmstead (38SU155). All date to the nineteenth and twentieth century, and represent different aspects of Sumter County's past – plantation, town, and small farm.

The Singleton/Manning Plantation exhibited good integrity with evidence of two different plantation main houses – one built on top of the other. The first house appeared to have burned down. The site appears to have been occupied between about 1820 and 1910. Of particular interest that this site was the presence of sherds of historic Catawba Indian pottery, providing physical evidence of an active trading network along the Catawba Path (SC Hwy 261). There was also some evidence at the site that there may have been an encampment related to Potter's Raid through the area in 1865. The site is significant in that it contained intact features that can provide good data on plantation architecture and contains a variety of artifacts that can provide good information on the daily lives of area planters. In addition, the site is significant as it was the boyhood home of Governor Richard Manning III and may also be associated with an important historic event – Potter's Raid.

Archaeological testing at Manchester (aka Ramsey's) Depot found chimney piles, foundation stones, and depressions. These excavations found burned soil layers and artifacts which are probably related to destruction of the depot and surrounding buildings during Potter's raid near the end of the Civil War. Artifacts and their locations suggest not only that the Depot was located in this spot, but that there were other structures in this location as well. Some of these buildings may have been domestic. Although the railroad and depot were constructed in 1852, the artifacts indicate that there was an occupation in this location as early as 1830, which is probably an outlying portion of the town of Manchester. While the town died after the railroad was moved to Wedgefield, artifacts indicate that this location continued to be used up until around 1900. The site can yield important information about the rise and decline of a small transportation-related Southern town. Although the entire town of Manchester has yet to be defined and is outside of Poinsett ECR, the isolation of the depot and the extension or shift of the town in this location provides an opportunity to examine aspects of a small Southern community initially formed through social ties and economic status, and developed through commercial interests.

The Reverend Robert Black farmstead represents an occupation by an African-American farm owner and minister. Reverend Black purchased the property in 1905 and lived there with his family until his death in 1920. This site contains structural remains and artifact deposits that are both chronologically and spatially discrete, indicating a strong potential to provide important information about the lifeways and material culture of Sumter County area African American farm owners and ministers. This potential is made more important by the lack of archaeological and historical studies of this social and economic group in Sumter

County and the state in general. The strength of the archaeological record is that it allows a voice to those who may have had little opportunity to provide lasting written records documenting everyday aspects of their lives. Archaeology at the Black farmstead will provide greater understanding and texture to the everyday lives of African Americans in the Sumter County area.

As previously discussed, a thorough examination of the historic records associated with Shaw/Poinsett can provide valuable information regarding social and economic structure and can provide some detailed information regarding family and community. There are many records to draw up including census data, property acquisition files, and family papers.

## PUBLIC INTERPRETATION AND OUTREACH

Given the level of effort undertaken to locate sites and assess them for their National Register eligibility, as well as retrieving information from prehistoric sites that would be destroyed, Shaw AFB/Poinsett ECR should promote the history and prehistory of the area through public interpretation and outreach. Such outreach could consist of museum-type displays either at Shaw AFB or perhaps the Sumter County Museum. Examples of projectile points and pottery, as well as panels discussing the prehistoric occupation of the area could be presented. Displays for historic sites could focus on a discussion of the various types of historical occupations that have been found including plantations, the Manchester Depot, and early twentieth century farmsteads. Brochures could also be produced with similar information and made available throughout the county. These brochures could either be printed or produced as a web page.

As previously mentioned, Shaw should consider a thorough examination of the historic documents detailing property ownership, economic and social status, land use, and other information. The results of this research could be presented as a popular report, perhaps made available as a downloadable pdf on the web.

Another type of public outreach could consist of virtual site and historic tours using Powerpoint software. Such tours could visually and verbally illustrate the scientific methods used to retrieve data from sites, the kinds of research questions asked, and present how the site addressed those research questions. Historic tours could present information on the people that lived in the area, cartographic data showing land use, historic discussions of town and plantation life, as well as how historical research and historic site archaeology work together to provide a fuller picture, particularly in instances where documentary evidence is sparse. These presentations could be used within the military to educate those stationed or working at Shaw AFB about the area's past and could be sent to Sumter County schools for their use in science and history curricula. This type of public outreach will allow Shaw AFB/Poinsett ECR to receive the public recognition it deserves for helping to protect the cultural resources it is responsible for.

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## APPENDIX A. LIST OF IDENTIFIED SITES AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

## ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES FROM SHAW AFB AND POINSETT ECR

### KEY

	Mitigated
	Eligible
	Potentially Eligible
	Unknown
	Not Eligible

### Shaw Air Force Base:

Site	CRM Report	Time Period	Size (m) N-S x E-W	Elig
SU 61	Brown et al. 1983:76 (Site 18)	prehist/historic	5x20	U
SU 62	Brown et al. 1983:77 (Site 19)	lithic/historic	50x75	U
SU 63	Brown et al. 1983:78 (Site 20)	19th Century	unkn.	U
SU248	Kreisa et al. 1997a:61	Late 19th-20th C	60x40	N
SU249	Kreisa et al. 1997a:63	L-Arch/Woodland; Late 19th-20th C	40x70	N
SU250	Kreisa et al. 1997a:63 Banguilan et al. 2004	Arch/Wood/19-20th C M-L Arch/E-M Woodland	160x340 60x60	N N
SU251	Kreisa et al. 1997a:68	Late 19th-20th C	40x60	N
SU252	Kreisa et al. 1997a:71	Late 19th-20th C	80x60	N
SU299	Banguilan et al. 2004 Banguilan et al. 2005	E-M Woodland E Archaic/Wood./Miss.	30x20 100x70	P E
4 Isolates	Kreisa et al. 1997a:67-71			

### Poinsett Weapons Range:

SU18	Brown et al. 1983:40 Cantley et al. 2002:59	Mississippian M-Archaic/Wood./Miss/19th C.	80x120	UR E
SU 44	Brown et al. 1983:59 (Site 1)	Woodland	100x100	U
	Kreisa et al. 1996:225			N
SU 45	Brown et al. 1983:59 (Site 2) Cable 1992a:6 Kreisa et al. 1996:109 (AOS 4) Kreisa et al. 1997b:59 Cable & Cantley 1998:77	E-L Woodland Woodland M-L Woodland/Miss. Archaic/Woodland/Miss.	225x400 300x300 260x280 260x280 130x230	U P P E M
SU 46	Brown et al. 1983:62 (Site 3) Kreisa et al. 1996:225	E-M Archaic/Woodland	60x200	U N
SU 47	Brown et al. 1983:63 (Site 4) Kreisa et al. 1996:225	M-L Woodland	40x50	U N
SU 48	Brown et al. 1983:64 (Site 5) Kreisa et al. 1996:225	Woodland	20x100	U N
SU 49	Brown et al. 1983:65 (Site 6) Kreisa et al. 1996:225	E-M Woodland	70x40	U N
SU 50	Brown et al. 1983:66 (Site 7) Cable 1992a:9 Kreisa et al. 1996:69	Woodland/Miss/hist E-L Woodland/hist	40x40 40x40	U U PE
SU 51	Brown et al. 1983:67 (Site 8) Cable 1992a:9 Kreisa et al. 1996: 107(AOS40/41)	Woodland E-L Woodland	400x250 60x400	U P P

	Cliff et al. 1999:73	Paleo/Arch/Wood/Miss	150x850	E
SU 52	Brown et al. 1983:68 (Site 9) Cable 1992a:10 Kreisa et al. 1996:108 (AOS23, 27-29) Cliff et al. 1999:110	E Woodland/Miss. Woodland/Miss. E-M Woodland Arch/Wood/Miss	200x400 175x125 460x100	U P P E
SU 53	Brown et al. 1983:69 (Site 10) Cable 1992a:10 Kreisa et al. 1996:225	Woodland Woodland	unkn.	U U UR
SU 54	Brown et al. 1983:70 (Site 11) Cable 1992a:11 Kreisa et al. 1996: 225-7	Woodland	unkn.	U U UR
SU 55	Brown et al. 1983:70 (Site 12) Cable 1992a:11 Kreisa et al. 1996: 225-7	Mississippian	unkn.	U U UR
SU 56	Brown et al. 1983:71 (Site 13) Cable 1992a:11 Kreisa et al. 1996:110 Chapman et al. 2001	(lithic) M Woodland/Miss.	unkn. 30x175 80 x 210	U U P E
SU 57	Brown et al. 1983:71 (Site 14) Cable 1992a:12 Kreisa et al. 1996: 237	Woodland/Hist.	10x10	U U UR
SU 58	Brown et al. 1983:72 (Site 15) Cable 1992a:12 Kreisa et al. 1996:69 (AOS 36) Banguilan et al. 2004	Woodland Woodland E-M Woodland Archaic/Woodland	unkn. 90x120 50x250 110x80	U U P N
SU 59	Brown et al. 1983:73 (Site 16) Cable 1992a:12 Kreisa et al. 1996: 225	19th-20th Cent. 19th-20th Cent.	unkn. unkn.	U U UR
SU 60	Brown et al. 1983:74 (Site 17) Cable 1992a:13 Kreisa et al. 1996:73 Chapman et al. 2001	19th Century Ramsey's Depot railroad depot site Manchester Depot	unkn. unkn. 120x120 250x350	U P P E
SU 104	Cable 1992a:14 (NSA-1) Kreisa et al. 1996: 113(AOS18/19)	Woodland prehistoric	unkn. 100x20	U N
SU 105	Cable 1992a:14 (NSA-2) Kreisa et al. 1996:113 (AOS20)	(lithic) Woodland	unkn. 80x20	U N
SU 106	Cable 1992a:14 (NSA-3) Kreisa et al. 1996:160 (AOS 39) Chapman et al. 2001	Woodland M Woodland Archaic/Woodland	unkn. 40x250 70x370	P P E
SU 107	Cable 1992a:15 (NSA-4) Kreisa et al. 1996:162 Cliff et al. 19991999:136	Woodland M-L Woodland M-L Arch/Wood/Miss	unkn. 150x150 65x130	U P E
SU 131	Kreisa et al. 1996:115 (AOS 2)	Woodland	10x60	N
SU 132	Kreisa et al. 1996:115 (AOS 3) Adams et al. 1997:111	M Woodland M Woodland	25x25 25x25	P N
SU 133	Kreisa et al. 1996:115 (AOS 5) Adams et al. 1997:115 Cable & Cantley 1998:94	M Woodland E-L Arch/E-M Wood	110x20 110x130	P E M

SU 134	Kreisa et al. 1996:117 (AOS 6)	E-M Wood/Miss.	100x20	N
SU 135	Kreisa et al. 1996:117 (AOS 7) Adams et al 1997:112	prehistoric	15x25 20x20	P N
SU 136	Kreisa et al. 1996:118 (AOS 8) Cable and Cantley 1998	E-M Woodland	200x40	P E
SU 137	Kreisa et al. 1996:119 (AOS 9) Cable and Cantley 1998	E Arch/E-M Wood.	40x30	P E
SU136/137	Cable and Cantley 1998 Cantley and Cable 2002b	Archaic/Wood/Miss	100x330	E M
SU 138	Kreisa et al. 1996:119 (AOS 10)	E-M Woodland	50x50	P
SU 139	Kreisa et al. 1996:121 (AOS 11)	E-M Woodland	50x120	P
SU 138/139	Cliff et al. 1999:149	Archaic/Woodland	60x200	N
SU 140	Kreisa et al. 1996:141 (AOS 12) Cantley and Swanson 2003	E-L Woodland E Archaic/Woodland	75x325 70x220	P E
SU 141	Kreisa et al. 1996:125 (AOS 13) Cable and Cantley 1998 Cantley and Cable 2002b	M Woodland Archaic/Wood/Miss	40x75 90x320	P E M
SU 142	Kreisa et al. 1996:73 (AOS 14)	M Woodland	25x25	N
SU 145	Kreisa et al. 1996:125 (AOS 17) Adams et al. 1997:132 Cable & Cantley 1998:110	M Woodland Paleo/Arch/E-MWood	90x20 60x200	P E M
SU 146	Kreisa et al. 1996:126 (AOS 1)	19th Century	75x250	N
SU 147	Kreisa et al. 1996:75 (AOS 32) Kreisa et al. 1997b:87	19th Century 19th Century	40x50 30x15	P N
SU 148	Kreisa et al. 1996:127 (AOS 44) Cantley and Swanson 2003	19th-20th Cent. 20th Century	50x50 120x140	P N
SU 149	Kreisa et al. 1996:128 (AOS 45) Adams et al. 1997:45	Richard Singleton Plantation (19th c) 19th-20th C	80x80 90x90	P E
SU 150	Kreisa et al. 1996:130 (AOS 46) Cantley et al. 2002: 72	preh/"Mrs.S." place (19th c) part of SU150	60x65 120x90	P E
SU 151	Kreisa et al. 1996:130 (AOS 47)	unkn. historic	40x25	N
SU 152	Kreisa et al. 1996:76 (AOS 53)	19th-20th Century	100x200	N
SU 153	Kreisa et al. 1996:77 (AOS 54) Chapman et al. 2001	unkn. historic 20th Century	60x60 60x80	P N
SU 154	Kreisa et al. 1996:78 (AOS 55)	19th-20th Century	80x80	N
SU 155	Kreisa et al. 1996:81 (AOS 56) Botwick et al. 2005	unkn. historic 19th-20th Cent.	40x40 30x40	P E
SU 156	Kreisa et al. 1996:164 (J-2)	prehistoric	5x5	N
SU 157	Kreisa et al. 1996:164 (J-4) Chapman et al. 2001	20th Century 20th Century	100x80 90x85	P N
SU 158	Kreisa et al. 1996:167 (J-5) Cliff et al. 1999 1999:167	Middle Woodland Archaic/Woodland	60x80 60x160	P N
SU 159	Kreisa et al. 1996:167 (J-7)	Middle Woodland	10x10	N
SU 160	Kreisa et al. 1996:169 (J-8)	20th Century	75x50	N
SU 161	Kreisa et al. 1996:81 (J-10)	19th Century	45x75	N
SU 162	Kreisa et al. 1996:169 (M-1)	20th Century	25x15	N
SU 163	Kreisa et al. 1996:169 (M-6) Chapman et al. 2001	Woodland/Miss.	125x90 80x145	P N
SU 164	Kreisa et al. 1996:173 (M-7)	Woodland/Miss.	115x75	N

SU 165	Kreisa et al. 1996:175 (M-8)	19th-20th Cent.	2x2	N
SU 166	Kreisa et al. 1996:175 (M-9)	prehistoric	15x15	N
SU 167	Kreisa et al. 1996:177 (M-12) Chapman et al. 2001	Woodland	40x50 40x75	P E
SU 168	Kreisa et al. 1996:132 (M-16)	Woodland/20th C.	120x110	N
SU 169	Kreisa et al. 1996:177 (M-27) Chapman et al. 2001	Woodland Woodland/Miss.	150x175 210x60	P N
SU 170	Kreisa et al. 1996:178 (M-28)	prehistoric	20x10	N
SU 171	Kreisa et al. 1996:180 (M-29)	20th Century	50x75	N
SU 172	Kreisa et al. 1996:182 (M-36) Cliff et al. 1999 1999:181	Woodland L-Archaic/Woodland	35x20 60x100	P N
SU 173	Kreisa et al. 1996:182 (M-41) Cliff et al. 1999 1999:196	Woodland/historic Arch/E-M Wood/Hist	95x95 140x60	P N
SU 174	Kreisa et al. 1996:82 (M-44)	prehist/19th Cent.	30x25	N
SU 175	Kreisa et al. 1996:84 (M-45)	20th Century	25x15	N
SU 176	Kreisa et al. 1996:184 (M-17)	19th-20th Century	100x90	N
SU 177	Kreisa et al. 1996:132 (M-20)	Woodland	5x5	N
SU 178	Kreisa et al. 1996:134 (M-23) Cliff et al. 1999:210	prehistoric Archaic/E-M Wood	35x70 120x80	P E
SU 179	Kreisa et al. 1996:135 (M-24) Cliff et al. 1999:225	Woodland Archaic/E-M Wood	65x40 220x140	P E
SU 180	Kreisa et al. 1996:136 (M-25) Cliff et al. 1999:240	Woodland Archaic/E-M Wood	60x40 120x80	P E
SU 181	Kreisa et al. 1996:137 (M-26) Cliff et al. 1999:252	Woodland Archaic/Woodland	70x60 140x160	P E
SU 182	Kreisa et al. 1996:184 (M-32)	Archaic/Woodland	1,100x 300	P
SU182/208	Cliff et al. 1999:273	Arch/Woodland/Miss	1,400x 220	E
SU 183	Kreisa et al. 1996:188 (M-33)	Middle Woodland	25x35	N
SU 184	Kreisa et al. 1996:188 (M-34)	prehist/historic	10x20	N
SU 185	Kreisa et al. 1996:188 (M-35)	20th Century	25x35	N
SU 186	Kreisa et al. 1996:84 (M-46)	20th Century	45x30	N
SU 187	Kreisa et al. 1996:85 (M-47)	20th Century	50x25	N
SU 188	Kreisa et al. 1996:138 (M-48) Cantley and Swanson 2003	preh/19-20 Cent. Archaic/Wood/20th Century	40x55 150x150	P N
SU 189	Kreisa et al. 1996:87 (M-49)	20th Century	15x10	N
SU 190	Kreisa et al. 1996:88 (M-50)	Archaic/Woodland/Miss.	200x80	N
SU 191	Kreisa et al. 1996:140 (M-51) Banguilan et al. 2004	Woodland/Miss. E-Archaic/Wood./Miss.	100x80 260x180	P E
SU 192	Kreisa et al. 1996:90 (M-52) Botwick et al. 2005	Woodland	125x50 130x120	P N
SU 193	Kreisa et al. 1996:190 (M-53)	20th Century	150x15	N
SU 194	Kreisa et al. 1996:190 (M-54)	prehistoric	30x30	N
SU 195	Kreisa et al. 1996:92 (M-55) Cantley and Swanson 2003	19th-20th Century 20th Century	30x30 70x70	P N
SU 196	Kreisa et al. 1996:92 (M-56) Cantley et al. 2002: 79	19th-20th Century	50x35 50x50	P N
SU 197	Kreisa et al. 1996:94 (M-58)	20th Century	20x20	N
SU 198	Kreisa et al. 1996:94 (M-59)	prehist/20th C.	10x30	N

SU 199	Kreisa et al. 1996:140 (M-62) Botwick et al. 2005	M Woodland Woodland	10x10 40x90	P N
SU 200	Kreisa et al. 1996:192 (J-1)	19th-20th Century	45x45	N
SU 201	Kreisa et al. 1996:194 (J-6)	Middle Woodland	50x100	N
SU 202	Kreisa et al. 1996:96 (K-1)	20th Century	40x60	N
SU 203	Kreisa et al. 1996:194 (M-5) Cliff et al. 1999:312	Woodland/Miss. Archaic/Wood/Miss	140x50 240x90	P E
SU 204	Kreisa et al. 1996:142 (M-13) Chapman et al. 2001	20th Century 19th-20th Century	50X60 50x90	P N
SU 205	Kreisa et al. 1996:197 (M-18) Chapman et al. 2001	Woodland Woodland/Miss.	40x70 110x90	P E
SU 206	Kreisa et al. 1996:144 (M-21) Cliff et al. 1999:327	Woodland Archaic/Wood/Miss	60x120 60x200	P N
SU 207	Kreisa et al. 1996:144 (M-22) Cliff et al. 1999:338	prehistoric Archaic/Woodland	20x15 40x80	P N
SU 208 (see SU182/208)	Kreisa et al. 1996:197 (M-31)	Woodland	110x500	P
SU 209	Kreisa et al. 1996:200 (M-39) Cantley and Swanson 2003	Wood/Miss/19th C.	300x350 200x220	P E
SU 210	Kreisa et al. 1996:146 (M-43)	20th Century	35x35	N
SU 211	Kreisa et al. 1996:96 (M-57)	M-L Woodland	35x35	N
SU 212	Kreisa et al. 1996:98 (M-60) Adams et al. 1997:70	19th-20th Century 19th-20thC	110x150 120x120	P N
SU 213	Kreisa et al. 1996:98 (M-61) Adams et al. 1997:87	Woodland/site of Manchester 19th-20thC	300x200 325x150	P N
SU 214	Kreisa et al. 1996:146 (AOS 21)	M Woodland	160x30	N
SU 215	Kreisa et al. 1996:149 (AOS 22) Cliff et al. 1999:345	E-M Woodland Archaic/Woodland	75x30 100x80	P E
SU 217	Kreisa et al. 1996:149 (AOS 24) Cliff et al. 1999: 110	M Woodland incorporated into 38SU52	100x75	P E
SU 218	Kreisa et al. 1996:151 (AOS 25) Cliff et al. 1999:369	E-M Woodland E Woodland	5x50 20x20	P N
SU 219	Kreisa et al. 1996:151 (AOS 26) Cliff et al. 1996:110	M Woodland incorporated into 38SU52	40x50	N E
SU 222	Kreisa et al. 1996:101 (AOS 30) Banguilan et al. 2004	E-M Woodland Archaic/Woodland/Miss.	300x175 270x120	P E
SU 223	Kreisa et al. 1996:152 (AOS 31)	M Woodland	10x20	N
SU 224	Kreisa et al. 1996:103 (AOS 33)	Woodland	5x10	N
SU 228	Kreisa et al. 1996:202 (AOS 38)	E-M Woodland	50x20	N
SU 230	Kreisa et al. 1996:203 (AOS 42) Chapman et al. 2001	M Wood./Miss.	145x50 30x60	P N
SU 231	Kreisa et al. 1996:205 (AOS 43)	prehistoric	10x60	N
SU 232	Kreisa et al. 1996:153 (AOS 48) Cliff et al. 1999:372	E-M Wood/Miss. Archaic/Wood/Miss	10x60 240x160	P E
SU 233	Kreisa et al. 1996:155 (AOS 50)	M Woodland Woodland	35x20 40x40	P N
SU 236	Kreisa et al. 1996:157 (AOS 52)	historic	20x20	N
SU 237	Kreisa et al. 1996:205 (J-3)	M Wood/historic	125x10	N
SU 238	Kreisa et al. 1996:158 (M-14)	19th Century	25x25	N

SU 239	Kreisa et al. 1996:207 (M-38)	Middle Woodland	75x10	N
SU 240	Kreisa et al. 1996:103 (M-42)	19th-20th Century	50x50	N
SU 241	Kreisa et al. 1996:160 (M-63)	19-20 C. cemetery	unkn.	U
SU 242	Kreisa et al. 1996:105 (AOS 57)	unkn. historic	30x30	N
SU243	SC Site Files Cantley et al. 2002: 72	M-L Woodland M Archaic/Woodland	170x50	U E
SU290	Cantley and Cable 2002a Botwick et al. 2005	Woodland/Miss/Hist Archaic/Wood/Miss/Hist	240x40 280x80	P E
SU291	Cantley and Cable 2002b	20th Century	160x50	N
SU292	Cantley and Cable 2002b Botwick et al. 2005	Woodland/Miss. Archaic/Woodland	25x100 50x160	P E
SU293	Cantley and Cable 2002b Botwick et al. 2005	Archaic/Woodland Woodland	140x240 40x60	P N
SU294	Cantley and Cable 2002b Botwick et al. 2005	Archaic/E-Wood Archaic/Wood/Miss	60x15 80x120	P E
SU295	Cantley and Cable 2002b	Unkn. Prehistoric	15x15	N
27 isolates	Kreisa et al. 1996:207			
7 isolates	Cantley and Cable 2002b			